DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 463 670 FL 027 234

AUTHOR	Ho, Kwok Keung, Ed.
TITLE	New Horizons in Education, 2001.
INSTITUTION	Hong Kong Teachers Association.
PUB DATE	2001-00-00
NOTE	244p.; Published twice per year.
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - Serials (022)
LANGUAGE	Chinese, English
JOURNAL CIT	New Horizons in Education; n43-44 May-Nov 2001
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC10 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Art Education; Career Development; Child Development; *Chinese; Computer Uses in Education; Curriculum Development; Developmental Stages; Early Childhood Education; Elementary Secondary Education; Equal Education; Evaluation Methods; Faculty Development; Foreign Countries; Higher Education; Information Technology; Inservice Teacher Education; Integrated Curriculum; Intelligence Tests; Interpersonal Competence; Moral Values; Multiple Intelligences; Reading Instruction; Remedial Instruction; Research Methodology; Science Instruction; Student Attitudes; Student Behavior; Teaching Methods; Whole Language Approach
IDENTIFIERS	Accelerated Schools; Binet Simon Intelligence Scale; Chinese Literature; Comparison Process; Emotional Intelligence; Hong Kong; National Identity

ABSTRACT

Articles in the May 2001 issue include the following: "Utilizing the Approach of Educational Evaluation on the Methodology of Research on Modern and Contemporary Chinese Literature" (Chun Kwong Wong); "An Examination of the Binet Intelligence Test and Multiple Intelligence Constructs" (Kwok Cheung Cheung); "Developmental Change on the Duration of Undergraduate Programme in Hong Kong" (Siu Wai Wu); "Direct-Granted Primary and Secondary Schools with 'Through Train Model' and Equal Opportunity of Education" (Maggie Fung Leun Lau); "The Moral Values of a New Generation: An Investigation of the Moral Landscape of Students in the PRC's Coastal Regions" (Feng Luo); "The Implementation and Extension of Whole Language Writing Project" (Che Ying Kwan); "The Use of Comparison Teaching Method in the Teaching of Chinese" (Hon Kwong Chow); "Does General Studies Help Pupils Develop Their Natural Identity in HKSAR?" (Lai Wah Wong Yu); "The Issues of Developmentally Appropriate Curriculum: Relevance and Application to the Early Childhood Curriculum in Hong Kong" (Paul Shu Sing Wong); "Information Technology in Learning and Teaching: Digital Video Clip Resources Bank" (Winnie Wing Mui So, Hing Keung Hung, and Siu Cheung Kong); "Transforming Extensive Reading Lessons" (Gertrude Tinker Sachs); and "Brief Critique on the Design of 'Accelerated Schools' and Its Practicality in Hong Kong from Both a Leadership and Cultural Perspectives" (Alan Ping Yan Chow). The November 2001 issue contains: "Emotional Intelligence, Students' Attitudes towards Life and the Attainment of Education Goals: An Exploratory Study in Hong Kong" (Chi Sum Wong, Ping Man Wong, and So Ling Chau); "Higher Education Pursuit as the Key to Career Advancement: An Exploratory Attitudinal Research Study" (Kenneth Chee Kwong Chao and Winnie Ngai); "The Issues Encountered in Information Technology Education: A Case Study of Three Secondary Schools in

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Hong Kong" (Hong Kin Kwok); "The Hong Kong 'Bird-Caged Arts Education' Needs Substantiate Improvement" (Shu Tak Yu); "On the Views of the Participants of Putonghua Teachers Inservice Training Course towards Action Research" (Che Ying Kwan); "A Study of the Hong Kong Primary General Studies as an Integrated Curriculum: Theory and Practice" (Joe Tin Yau Lo and Irene Nga Yee Cheng); "A Survey of the Chinese Language Remedial Teaching in Hong Kong Secondary Schools" (Kit Ling Lau); "A Preliminary Study of the Materials of Sentence Teaching for Primary 1 Students in Hong Kong" (Shuk Ying Ng); "Kindergarten Teachers' Rating of Children's Social Competence and Strategies They Use To Guide Appropriate Behavior" (Margaret Wing Chi Lau); "Information Technology and Early Childhood Education: A Case Study Report" (Siu Cheung Kong and Yuk Hing Wong); and "Are Parents Prepared To Be Involved in Children's Education?" (Shun Wing Ng). (Papers contain references.) (SM)

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New Horizons in Education, 2001

Kwok Keung Ho, Editor

No. 43-44

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NEW HORIZONS
In Education

No. 43 May 2001

教育曙光

第四十三期
二零零一年五月

香港教師會
教育學報

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION
HONG KONG TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

3

香 港 教 師 會

香港教師會於一九三四年成立，以促進教育同工之間的密切合作、提高教育專業人員的地位、維護會員的權益、增進會員的福利、加強國際間的了解為宗旨。香港教師會除了是本港一個教育團體外，同時亦是多個國際性組織的會員，如世界教師專業組織聯合會及國際閱讀協會會員。

香港教師會的週年學術活動有：(一)教育研究大會，如一九九七年舉辦的「優質教育新挑戰：愉快的教與學」研究大會、一九九八年舉辦的「質素保證視學如何提升學校教育質素？」研究大會、及一九九九年舉辦的「邁向2000年教師何去何從？」研究會等；(二)本港教育專題研討會，如「幼稚園、小學與中學的銜接研討會」、「特殊學校音樂教育研討會」、「如何為成績稍遜的學生提供有效學習研討會」、「教室管理的科學與藝術」及「母語教學問題及解決方法研討會」等；(三)定期出版教育曙光。近年舉辦的國際學術活動，則有一九九二及一九九九年主辦的海峽兩岸四地學術研究會及一九九八年主辦第三屆東北亞教育論壇。

教 育 曙 光

*教育曙光*是一份香港教師會出版的教育學報，每期均請專家評審；每年五月及十一月出版，分發全港幼稚園、小學、中學及大專院校。

*教育曙光*以促進專業發展與教學實踐為宗旨，每期均刊登具實踐和研究價值的文章。文章的範疇包括專題探討本港當前教育問題的剖析、教學、輔導及學校行政的研究，教育新趨勢和新意念的介紹等。

歡迎教師、學校行政人員、輔導工作者、教育學者及研究人員投稿。詳情請參閱每期刊登的徵稿啟示。

*教育曙光*歡迎各教育機構免費訂閱。請將訂閱表格及郵費寄來香港教師會。

HONG KONG TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

The Hong Kong Teachers' Association (HKTA), founded in 1934, aims at developing close cooperation among educational workers, promoting the professional status of teachers, protecting the rights and improving the welfare of its members and strengthening international understanding of teacher organizations. Apart from being a Hong Kong-based educational body, HKTA is also a member of international organizations such as Education International and the International Reading Association.

The academic activities of HKTA include: (1) the annual education conference, such as and the 1999 Conference on Towards 2000 the Right Way for Teachers; the 1997 Conference on New Challenge of Quality Education: Pleasurable and Effective Teaching and Learning, the 1998 Conference on Promoting Quality Assurance Inspection and School Quality, (2) Seminars on local educational issues such as: "Continuity in Preschool, Primary and Secondary Education", "Music Education in Special Schools", "Effective Learning for the Less Able Students", "The Science and Arts of Classroom Management" and "Seminars on the Problems and Solutions of Mother-Tongue Teaching", and (3) the publication of New Horizons in Education. In 1992 and 1999 HKTA is proud to be the chief organizer and the host for The First and Fifth Educational Conference of China, Taiwan, Hong Kong & Macau and hosted the 1998 Third North-East Asia Teachers' Forum.

NEW HORIZONS IN EDUCATION

New Horizons is a refereed journal of education published in May and November by HKTA. It is distributed to kindergartens, primary and secondary schools and teriary institutions in Hong Kong.

New Horizons is intended as a forum to stimulate and enhance professional development and practice in education. We publish papers that speak directly to practical school and classroom concerns as well as papers that are based on systematic inquiries into educational issues and practices, including those related to the announced themes(s). We also publish presentations of new developments and innovative ideas tried out in schools, in Hong Kong or elsewhere.

Submissions are invited from teachers, school administrators, persons with pastoral duties, educationists and researchers. General information about submissions can be found in the Call for Papers in each issue of the journal.

Free subscription to New Horizons is on an institutional basis. Institions are required to send in a request from and pay the postage.

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教　育　曙　光

第四十三期，二零零一年五月

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* 用英文撰寫

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編者語

今期共收到廿三篇來稿，經過雙重不記名的評審後，能被接納而又趕及在付印前修正寄回的稿件只有十二篇。來稿的評審需時平均約為八星期，最長的要四個月，最快的四星期便可知道結果，主要視乎個別評審者的效率及合作程度，編者能做的只是多和評審者溝通及催促。本刊一向鼓勵中、小學教師執筆投稿，惟在筆者任主編這七年間，這方面的來稿實在極少，今期劉鳳靈老師的文章希望能引發多一些這方面的來稿。

讀者可在美國教育研究資源中心的光碟系統及在萬維網中(網址如下： http://www1.fed.cuhk.edu.hk/en/nh/nhindex.htm or www.hktc.ed.gov.hk) 閱讀本刊各期文章的摘要。如讀者欲取得一本最近期的教育曙光，可寄上一個附七元二角(外地請寄美金三元或等值的港幣滙票)的回郵信封(A-4 大小) 到：
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From the Editor

A total of 23 manuscripts were received for consideration in this issue. Twelve could pass the double blind review process and were revised in time. The average reviewing period was about 8 weeks in this issue, actual time ranging from 4 to 15 weeks, depending on individual reviewer's cooperation. Though our journal encourages manuscripts directly written by teachers, we seldom got articles solely written by them. Ms LAU Fung Luen's article in this issue is a rare one since I become the editor in 1994. We hope there will be more teachers interested in publication in the future.

Readers can access the abstracts of our past issues (starting from the 1967 issue) through the international data base ERIC or the internet website address: (http://www1.fed.cuhk.edu.hk/en/nh/nhindex.htm or www.hktc.ed.gov.hk). Readers can also get a complimentary hard copy of the journal by sending an A4 size self-address return envelope with sufficient postage (HK$7.20 local or US$3.00 equivalent cost for overseas) to: HK Teachers Association, 242 Nathan Rd., 7/F, National Court, Kowloon, Hong Kong.

徵稿

*教育曙光*整年徵稿，由2000年開始每年刊登兩期，歡迎教師、學校行政人員、輔導工作者、教育學者及研究人員投稿，發表他們從研究和實踐所得的新思維和新啟示。如及時接納（及修訂），將於每年五月或十一月刊登。

來稿請寄：九龍彌敦道242號立信大廈八樓
香港教師會*教育曙光*主編收

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Please send papers to: The Editor, ***New Horizons***, Hong Kong Teachers' Association,
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2. The author's name, position, affiliation, address, contact number(s) of telephone, Fax and Email, should be given in both English and Chinese. Please also enclose 3 self-addressed envelopes with enough stamps.
3. Paper should be around 5000 words in length and should include an abstract of no more than 150 words. A Chinese version of the abstract together with a Chinese title should also be included.
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印刷：香港高科技有限公司　電話 2797 9483
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借鑑教育評估——論現當代中國文學研究與評價*

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過去五十年，現當代中國文學範圍的研究大多數不客觀、不科學，除了政治干預文學研究外，研究法本身陳舊過時、不合科學原理，也是明顯可見的事實。大陸開放政策實施以後，境外各種思維傳入，對文學研究方法也起了相當大的影響。本文即試圖引入教育評估原理及研究方法於現當代中國文學研究領域，當中討論哪些項目可以借鑒，如何借鑒，這固然屬跨學科研究嘗試，其實也是為舊學科尋找研究新方法之一範例。

Utilizing the Approach of Educational Evaluation on the Methodology of Research on Modern and Contemporary Chinese Literature

In past fifty years, most of the research in the field of modern and contemporary Chinese Literature is not objective and not scientific. Besides political interference, the methodology that the researchers commanded in hand is outdate and not effective. Since China opens its door in1978, Chinese scholars have absorbed various literature critical methods from western world. This article intends to introduce the principle and methodology of educational evaluation in the field of modern and contemporary Chinese literature research. A wide area, including many detail items of the field has been discussed. Of course, some items may not be suitable to be adopted, but most of the research activities can adopt the methodology of educational evaluation. This is a new trial to carry out the inter-discipline study.

一・緒言

1. 釋題

本文所指「現當代中國文學」，時限自1919至1949年，研究與評價之探討範圍包括白話文作品與作家、文藝政策制訂、作品需求與作品推銷等。

教育評估(educational evaluation)屬於政策評估的一種，評估是一種研究手段，效用是提供優良方案以助決策。研究者借此以解決科學或社會問題，例如新機場的選址，會考慮經濟效益，工程難度（地質——是否地震帶、有地下岩洞否，需修橋造路否），氣候干擾（氣流、候鳥）等因素。這當中有純技術的問題，也有節省成本的問題。阿爾健(Alkin, 1972, p.105-177)給「評估」下定義：

Evaluation is the process of ascertaining the decision areas of concern, selecting appropriate information, and collecting and analyzing information in order to report summary data useful to decision-makers in selecting among alternatives.

意思是說，評估是就有關決策範圍進行探究運籌，選取合適的訊息，蒐集並分析之，然後將數據整理為簡明報告，供決策者在不同方案中選擇。不過，這紙是一種說法。二十世紀在美國流行的評估策略有幾十種，研究者需因應不同環境和不同條件，運用不同的評估方法。世上並沒有全球適用或萬代通行的評估方法。本文稍後會提及幾種評估策略供參考。

評估(evaluation)、量度(measurement)、審核(assessment)本來是有分別的。以尺和秤去衡量長度、體重是屬於「量度」，答案是「多少」；評審下屬表現和考核學生成績都屬審核，答案是「高下」或「優劣」；而評估則是掌握全部資料進行優選，對象視乎所針對的計劃項目(program)、課程(curricula)和組織變元(organizational variables)，答案是「何以優？」「怎樣好？」由此可知，評估是**價值判斷**，可能需要運用客觀量度和公平審核兩種手段。它一般用作評量某些事物的價值，尤其是牽涉與其它項目、課程和有組織的方略(organizational scheme)，進行好壞取捨之比較。(Scriven, 1967)

教育評估起自二十世紀初，百年之間經歷了四代：

* 本文英文術語譯名荷蒙香港大學教育系鍾添鉅教授斧正，謹此致謝。

第一代著重量度，第二代著重描述，第三代著重判斷，第四代著重協商。(Guba et al. 1987)四個特點各有偏重，文學研究者可以因應課題各選所需，因此都有一定參考價值。

2. 目的

本文企圖將社會科學研究的一些策略，重點是教育研究策略，引進文學研究範疇。將社會科學研究法引入文學研究的學者早已有之——斯蒂文・托托西(Totosy de Zepetnek, 1997)便是一個例子。該書用相當多篇幅談論文化與文學的關係。最後二章六節則談「文學研究和電子時代」，則已涉及電子革命，特別是信息高速公路對文學的影響。本文以舉例方式，論述各種可能的或可用的社會研究或教育研究手段，供有興趣者參考，以使用於研究作家、作品和影響等。

3. 利用社會科學研究手段澄清現代文學研究中的疑點

過去幾十年，中國現代文藝論著裡，經常包含虛假內容和偽造證據。且提兩件大家都有印象的事。一是六十年代初影響很大的大型歌舞劇「革命贊歌」，戲臺上出現「華人與犬不得進內」的牌子，據說原來豎在上海外灘公園門口；但有人揭發，上海外灘公園原來的牌子不是這樣寫的，是一些熱心人士蓄意扭曲原文來污蔑帝國主義的。外灘公園在租界，當時是私人地方，所以園主人在牌子上寫著「華人未經許可不得進內」的字句，而另一條則寫著「不准攜犬入內」，兩個牌子本來分開懸掛，而且當時是私人地方，很難確定裡面包含種族歧視因素。有人故意把兩句話結合起來，改變句子形式，就成了煽動民族情緒的「妙品」。可憐香港和海外一些不知底細的人，到了九十年代，在詩文創作或編寫史料時還依然提及那個令人憤慨的子虛烏有的牌子。二是人民公社時期，我在鄉下，親眼看見幹部命令鄉親把其他土地裡的番薯一擔擔挑往指定的田畝裡，然後讓人拿著照相機拍照，以營造畝產幾萬斤的神話。後來才知道，這在當時是一種風氣。幾十年來，各種各樣的文藝創作——劇本、報告文學、詩歌、小說等配合這種假大空時代精神的應該為數不少，可是有哪一本當代文學史書膽敢明確揭示出來！作偽文化對文藝之禍害真是罄竹難書！最近看到倪墨炎(1996)《現代文壇冤禍錄》，所錄的是1949年以前的事。其實，二十世紀下半期文學藝術家所遭遇的冤禍，比那本書列出的不知要慘重多少倍，但很少人願意趁大家還在切切實實地寫出來。文革十年，慘遭迫害的作家無數，其傳記中的迫害過程都輕輕帶過，甚至隻字不提，例如北京語言學院中國文學家辭典編委會(1979:193)《中國文學家辭典》，關於老作家丁玲的介紹就止於五十年代初，而對李廣田被迫害的事就祇一句話帶過。李少群(1989:275-277)《李廣田傳論》關於李廣田如何遭迫害及如何死亡，也是含糊其辭。好像迫害之事壓根兒就不曾發生過，這符合客觀事實嗎？科學研究就是找尋真相，而不寫，下一代就不知，後人靠甚麼來了解和研究呢？聽說有人根據各種檢討書、自供狀，寫出論文，說文革源於知識分子反共和抗拒改造而發生，是知識分子咎由自取。唱此調者遭人指責時還振振有詞，說完全根據文獻說話，是客觀的結論。問題在哪裡？除了巴金(1982)《真話集》以外，肯把事實詳細寫下來的人並不多——我們需要的是記錄詳盡的真人、真事、真材料！

過去五十年，現代作家最有影響力的估計（未經調查）是魯迅，但這主要是政治運動造成，港臺居民就不那麼受影響。求真的話，就該利用社會調查。

有個別研究者注意到香港近年出現一批以回歸為題材的文學作品，特別是談及香港回歸給當地居民帶來的困擾。有的研究者不是香港人，即使在香港居住一段時間，恐怕並不明白香港人的心情。這裡有一個故事。兩個男女孤兒，自幼給人領養，雖然並不快樂，可是也能維持衣食，勉強熬過生活，有一天，忽然出現一位所謂本家家長——殘暴不仁，殺戮迫害下一代不必說，隨時以利刀架著子姪的脖子並以之當作人質來勒索鄰人——這當然比豺狼厲害，因為豺狼不懂這樣做。當族人都為那對孤兒慶祝一家團聚時，有誰真正明白那對孤兒內心的悲憤？這個故事帶出來的問題是：理解別人的苦難不易——異鄉人談論他地問題時，能否確切瞭解當地人的心情？廣東人有句老話——「針不插（刺）肉不知痛」，卻是千真萬確的道理。大陸一些評論香港文學的專書，總使人覺得錯漏百出，如果使用科學的、社會科學的調查方法，也許更為可靠和可信。

概括而言，已出版的現代文學史，資料和推論經常真偽並存，令人迷惑，這是事實。因此，應改變過往使用的以教條主義代調查的方法。切切實實使用社會科學的調查方法去搜集資料，處理問題，判別真偽，才是客觀的研究策略，結果纔會準確可靠。

4. 西方文學批評和研究理論影響與日俱增

過去三十年港臺文學界一直不遺餘力地介紹西方美學和文學理論。這方面的著作可說多如牛毛。像姚一葦(1968)著《藝術的奧秘》，王夢鷗(1979)譯《文學原

理》，雖非針對現代文學研究，卻對港臺現代文學批評起過很大的啟發作用。

大陸開放以後，翻譯和介紹西方文藝批評的論著多如雨後春筍，例如由陳桑主編的「二十世紀歐美文論叢書編輯委員會」就翻譯了好些原著——但缺點是在譯書中完全不見原作者和原書名的外文出版資料，無從查核譯文的版本和正誤，難以取信。有一套「文藝美學叢書」，其中《當代敘述學》由伍曉明(1990)譯自Martin, Wallace. (1986) Recent Theories of Narrative，與英文原著相差四年而已。又如柳鳴九(1987,1988,1994)主編「西方文藝思潮論叢」，有《未來主義、超現實主義、魔幻現實主義》、《自然主義、意識流》、《後現代主義到後現代主義》等，既譯且介，使人嘆為觀止。其他出版社出版的類似書籍多不勝舉。這自然是可喜的現象。直接討論研究方法的論著如傅修延、夏漢寧(1986)《文藝批評方法論基礎》，相當具體地介紹了現代文學研究者選用的模式和方法，例如第四章五節「熵定律與耗散結構」舉了一個例子：劉再復〈論人物性格的二重組合原理〉一文運用了熵定律的一些概念來詮釋其理論。不過，這樣做似乎比附詮釋的意義大於研究方法的採用。前面提到的《文學研究的合法化》收入「北大學術講演叢書」。這套叢書之中，好幾本都是與文學研究有關，例如佛克馬、蟻布思《文學研究與文化參與》、蒲安迪《中國敘事學》、傑姆遜《後現代主義與文化理論》等。

當人民有了知情權以後，大家不會再囿於封閉的單一的批評方法。而能提出更多的研究方法，供人選擇，供人嘗試，該是好事。

本文的目的是試圖將教育評估理論引入現代中國文學研究領域。其中一些理論屬於社會研究方法，畢竟教育評估原屬社會科學範疇，而評估理論本可用於科學與社會科學方面，它們之間有交叉關係。至於借鑒能否成事，端賴實踐。

二・現代文學研究之性質與教育評估

1. 現代文學研究的特點

現當代文學研究特點之一：作者還在，其親友還在，其手稿、用品或遺物還在。通過訪談、查尋，核對資料，可信性較大。

現當代文學研究特點之二：大部分作品的內容是反映社會問題的，與社會科學息息相關，可以利用社會科學手段論證。

現當代文學研究特點之三：作者與我們同時，或與我們父兄同時；歷史在我們腦海中，社會在我們腦海中，而不盡在文獻中。昔人慨嘆不能與作者生於同時，現代文學研究在這方面卻給我們造就許多優越條件。每個人的感受儘管不同，但因為在大時代中有共同的命運和遭遇，其哀樂悲戚仍有共通之處，祇要存在講真話的自由，即可以提高資料的信度(reliability)和效度(validity)。

現當代文學研究特點之四：我們處在科學、社會科學學說眾說紛紜的時代，研究手段日新月異，研究者在解釋和研究方面可以予取予攜，兼收並蓄。這是現代文學研究者比古人佔優勢之處。

2. 現代文學作品的性質

現代文學作品實質上是有價商品之一類。作家要吃飯，因而要稿費和版稅，作品是個體或群體（如電視劇往往集體編撰）的營生產品之一，這就不得不講究效率和效益，也注意市場與銷路——哪家出版社願意無限度賠本？這與古代作家不計較利益——甚至隱名、化名但求作品傳世性質有所不同。當然，現代作品還受制於其他因素，如政府和文教界人士對作品的文化、道德、語文教育功能的期望和制約。試列簡表如下：

	作家	出版社	政府	教界	讀者
精神的	淨化人心	商譽	宣傳	社教、文化修養	美感
功利的	營生、版稅	賺錢	營業稅	教育作用、語文	消遣、知識

現代文學作品既然逃避不了功利的、物質的因素，那麼，與之相關連的不同環境、措施和機構人物都可能成為變元和量化因子。這樣，以社會研究和教育學研究的方法去處理也就可行了。

還有，我們在文學評論文章裡常看到類似的句子：「某某是了人民群眾喜聞樂見的形式創作」。怎樣證明這句話的真確性？用統計方法證明呢，還是睜開眼睛說瞎話？八億人看八齣戲一次，跟一億人看八齣戲十次，意義並不一樣。應該使用問卷調查、抽樣訪談等方法，如此較能掌握實情。

3. 事前研究與事後研究的性質

事前研究包括文藝政策的制訂，文學市場和文學需求的調查等。1998年4月23日香港特區政府中央政策組曾發函邀請各方人士於5月29日下午2時30分至5時15分在香港大會堂低座劇院參加「一體多元的文化政策：德國模式」研討會，主講者是德國科隆市文化部主

管Dr Kathinka Dittrich van Weringh，評論員三位——梁秉中教授（香港中文大學新亞書院院長、中華文化促進中心副主席）、榮念曾先生（香港科技大學藝術中心藝術指導）、鍾普洋先生（香港藝術中心監督團主席、敦豪國際（香港）有限公司主席）。文學藝術是文化範疇重要成分，文學政策屬文化政策之一種。凡制訂政策，都可以使用教育評估原理，社會調查，統計等策略和手段去作事前研究以供拍板參考。

事後研究如果對象是作品（一篇、一本或一類），可以是內容詮釋，或價值評估——前者常借助跨學科如心理學、哲學等去比附類推，後者實際上可視為產品品質檢查(product quality check)；如果對象是作家，則涉及生平傳記類的可以歸入資料處理，涉及作品風格的可以歸入產品品質評估；如果對象是流派、社團的，不妨依照作家研究之方式措置。凡是產品檢查性質的都可以使用教育評估法則去作事前或事後處理。

假設這樣粗略分類並不離譜，則文學研究很多方面都可以利用教育評估原則去研究。這就是本文的主題。

4. 教育評估原則簡述

「美國教育評估標準聯合委員會」(The Joint Committee on Students for Educational Evaluation in the United States,1981)提出四項基本準則(criteria)以判斷評估模式(evaluation model)之優劣：實用(utility)、可行(feasibility)、合適(propriety)、準確(accuracy)。在達致評估目標之前，作為工具的評估模式若未能符合以上四項條件，便不算是一個好工具。

教育評估可以分兩大類：一類是處方模式(prescriptive model)，常見型態有一堆規條，處方，禁例，以及指導框架，說明好的或一般的評估應如何如何進行——此類評估係當作模範；另一類是描述模式(descriptive model)，提出一堆陳述和常例，描寫、預測，或解釋評估活動——此類評估係提供一種經驗理論。

教育評估者喜歡問：是否別有他法？如果有，哪一個更有效益？因此如果乙辦法與甲辦法比較，其他條件相同，但乙辦法能更有效地達成目標，乙辦法就是好方案。

5. 教育評估模式與文學研究關係舉隅

教育評估有百年歷史，模式很多，無法盡舉，下面僅介紹幾種。

(1)需求評估(Needs Assessment)

需求評估（Needs Assessment）(Stuffebeam et al. 1985:1-22)的概念產生於六十年代中。這個評估方法作為項目（Program研究計劃或實施項目）目標中之基礎，及爭取付諸實現時之撥款級別。需求評估廣泛應用於教育項目，包括學生成長（例如學術、情緒、社交、就業觀、體育、品德諸方面），美國由村鎮、州以至聯邦政府都接納這種評估策略。它的特點是使用測量和分析技術，提供理據，供決策者選擇優先項目。需求評估通常傾向於問及未來：這項計劃或服務實施之後會得到甚麼結果？而事後檢討（評估Evaluation），則傾向於問及現在或過去：這項計劃或服務取得了甚麼成果？

這個評估模式可用於文學政策之訂定、文學產品需求之預測（讀者需要哪類讀物，學校圖書館需要哪類作品，社會需要出版哪類刊物——以「臺周刊」和「蘋果日報」的出現和生存為例，顯然它們真正捉摸社會需求），當代作家需要寫哪類作品及使用哪種技巧才能吸引讀者，讀者需要出版社在哪方面輔導才能理解某位作家的語言，出版社需從哪方面宣傳才能使某君作品廣為人知，等等。評估結果將使創作大為改變——內容的、文字的、或風格的。

(2)專注實用之評估(Utilization-focused evaluation)

「專注實用之評估」(Patton, 1986)是為了回答參與者(stakeholders)之問題。

評估者提供有用的(useful)及可用的(usable)資訊給特定的人士。專注實用評估之策略是找出未來用家(intended users)之需求和須知。這意味著該評估應可能專注於問題、爭論、困難、決策、目標、系統關聯、價值、比較——任何提供之有意義之框架，讓用家使用。這個模式可以提供予大出版社，在制訂出版文學書刊之方向時作參考。也可以供作家聘請評估顧問進行調查以瞭解潮流及讀者意見，從而在作品風格上稍加調整以適應社會。

(3)項目評估(Program Evaluation)

Cook, Leviton & Shadish(1985:699-777) 為這個評估模式畫出一幅清晰圖像，供評估者跟從。它的一個功能是供機構回饋內部運作以偵察問題，及建議如何改善。

這個評估對於集體創作（如電視劇、舞臺劇之劇集創作、修改及演出合作）之內部評估及改善大有裨益。它將可在效率、經費、藝術效果等方面提供建設性之意見。

(4)質性評估法(Qualitative Evaluation)

定性評估 可謂「歷史悠久」。它可以與定量分析結合。它蒐集資料的方法多姿多彩，通常的技巧包括民族調查、參與觀察、非參與觀察、短期觀察、非正式面談、隨意（偶然）傾談、文獻覽評。該種評估者必須敏感，不僅注視詞語且留心意義。他們注意隱藏於詞語底下的常態及價值系統。為此，他們試圖把形態打扮、姿勢、舉止、身形、身體語言融注入調查場面。就像任何其他評估，其目的是為了回答核心的評估問題，但定性評估者在這方面更主動、更努力地為他們所獲得的線索找尋原因和答案。(Weiss, 1998:265-270)

這個評估的研究策略可以借用於創作前的資料搜集，也可供評論者研究某個作家（例如少數民族作家、偏遠地區作家）作品風格時採用。例如要研究東北作家（例如蕭紅）的作品，可實地調查民情，配合記載東北文化風俗資料的「白山黑水叢書」，雙軌進行。

(5)產品評估(Product Evaluation)

產品（製成品）評估 理論由三藩市大學評估研究所主任Michael Scriven (1981:121-166)教授發展出來。該方法最初使用於人事評估和項目評估，必要時運用排序法(ranking)以代替分等法(grading)，反之亦然。產品評估的現代形式涉及品質控制(quality control)，製造品種過程中由「試驗至毀滅」的進程，市場上的消費報告等。古代日本劍的柄子上常刻上簽名——不僅製劍人，也包括受人敬重的獨立刀劍鑒評家。那些劍評家為了試刀鋒，通常拿倒楣的囚犯作試驗，由此逐漸形成職業化，並且世代相傳，影響子孫就業，也影響家聲。中國古代的刻書工匠也有類似的作風，因而古籍版本學者可據以判別版本時代和優劣。現代因職位流動而削弱這種制度，但Scriven則在此基礎上構思另一策略以取代之。它最大的特點是取樣百分卡，用得分比較制(gain-score comparison)，設計上及形式上均不訂目標(goal-free)，有點像無特定目標評估（goal-free evaluation）(Scriven, 1972:1-7)。其應用範圍包括評估自動化物件（如汽車及其配件）、教育設施、照片、收音機、藥品、餐廳食品等。以酒家食品為例，不同食家報刊或酒樓雜誌對之作了評估，由於該等報刊或雜誌本身已具備等級，顧客因而得以知道其級數、檔次。

1966年以前，出版社如人民文學出版社、作家出版社，中國青年出版社，似乎是有等級之分，這就暗示了出版物的級別。文學報刊如《人民文學》、《鍾山文藝》、《XX文學》也有類似等級制，這就等於以行業聲譽給作品（文字產品）作了鑒定。但他們評鑒的準則如何，好像並不公開。

產品評估並無固定辦法，可以比較力度（如汽車扭力）、測試表現能力（例如電池耐用度），但汽車除價錢外，買家也應考慮售方是否迅速修補及維修費高低等因素。香港消費者委員會經常測試各種產品（如電飯煲、電插頭、磁碗碟），比較其性能，然後進行產品評估。以電池為例，可分細項：測試耐用、電壓(夠勁)、包裝（不漏化學藥液），比較價錢、說明文字（列明有效日期、介紹功能），等等，逐項評級，並列表比較，最後或者給予一個總級別（例如三粒星）。

文學作品既是文字產品，在外部作用上可分警世教化、娛悅人心、幫助語文教育諸種功能，在寫作技巧上可細分遣詞、修辭、組織、敘述方式等項目，在思想內容風格上可分哲理的、知識的、煽情的，等等，都可通過專家評鑒或讀者評價而比較序次，劃分等級，最後評估高下。作文評改，文學作品比賽評判，其原則也應離此不遠。文學研究中，作品比較，作家比較，文學團體影響或貢獻比較，為甚麼不能嘗試此種方法？

(6)推斷性評估(Inferential Evaluation)

推斷性評估 (Hudson, 1975:79-81)欲在事實之上追查成因及影響之關係，問題如：「Y由X造成嗎？」此評估並不強調價值，而強調因果關係。某個措施項目或獲得成績，因為它得出成果（如家庭關係改善因為接受輔導），或遭受批判，因為它失敗（例如罪行沒有防止因為政策低劣）。其他問題是：「確是X造成Y嗎？」「若然不是，則X造成誰？」或者「若非X造成Y，則誰造成Y？」這種評估牽涉不同利益集團和人群，在評估過程中有很多混淆和矛盾之處不易解決。但如果將其原理借用於作品影響研究，（例如探討某類作品如漫畫何故深受年青一代歡迎，金庸武俠小說何故風靡華人社區），大概也是有啟發性的。

三・事前研究與教育評估舉隅

1. 調查社會需求

現行的文藝作品研究大部分是事後研究。其實事前研究有時是需要的。

五十年代初，香港要展開反吸毒宣傳，姚克為此撰寫一個劇本——《陋巷》。他親自跑到九龍城寨——當時一個中英都不管的小區，進行田野調查，親身訪問觀察吸毒者，瞭解實況，然後下筆。顯然，在姚克撰寫《陋巷》前，有關方面已初步作了需求評估，覺得利用劇本和話劇可以起反吸毒宣傳作用，於是讓姚克去進行第二步的調查工作。

2. 調查服務對象（client 顧客/讀者/觀眾）心理需求

香港無線電視臺星期一至五晚上有兩個長篇劇集：一個從7時30分開始，另一個從9時30分開始，每集一小時。有幾次到了劇集接近尾聲，電視臺即舉行競猜結局遊戲——男女主角是團圓呢？還是分開？歹徒的結局是死呢？還是逍遙法外？這實際上是利用觀眾的選舉取得數據，通過統計方法去瞭解觀眾的心理需求，再確定下面幾集該如何拍（假如尚未拍攝完竣）。電視臺要爭取廣告客戶，最重要的是留住觀眾，確定了觀眾的心理傾向，再去編寫下一集劇本，拍攝的效果會更好。這是需求評估的範疇。

而推出這麼一個調查計劃，想達致甚麼成效（或為下一部片集搜集資料），技術（電話投票？郵寄投票？）成本（宣傳費用、獎品價錢、電話投票——誰付電話費？）時間（何時推出，維持多久），人手，等等都需計算。評估者能以其專業提供一個較佳方案供決策者參考。評估的結果有利於推行競猜，而競猜則增加了劇集的影響力，同時亦影響劇集後期創作或未來創作。

3. 評估作品修改工程之成效

如果有一本長篇巨著要大規模修改，怎樣做最有效？所謂最有效，要從幾個方面考慮，作家的健康（假如年逾八十，隨時羽化）、時間（例如出版社限時完成）、金錢（例如字數與成本，作家等著開飯），出版社的要求（因銷量、印刷費而考慮篇幅、風格、故事結局等）、政府要求（建議刪去暴力、色情和反獨裁、反貪污內容）、讀者喜好（宗教的、政治的、風俗的）等，各方面都是利益參與者(stakeholders)，不能不考慮他們的權利，這樣就必須做一個評估，找出最優方案。結果不一定是讓老作家親自修改——可能建議由其助手兩三人協助修改（大刀闊斧刪削、加快修訂），老作家最後審閱過目。

此一工程，不妨選用實用評估(Utilization Evaluation)模式。

四・事後研究與教育評估舉隅

1. 作品評價

作品發表以後，讀者總喜歡討論其價值。常見的做法是研究者關起門來，找尋文評學或修辭學之類書刊，左抄右引，比附分析，以證其高妙絕頂。其實文學作品的對象是讀者，不是專家，如果高中語文程度的人無法理解，祇有專家才能領略其妙，該作品恐怕不能算是好作品，起碼不是有效作品。

較好的辦法是開座談會，一場是專家的，十個八個參加，另一場是中學畢業的普通讀者參加，二三十人參加。後一場的人尤須來自不同年齡組別和不同社會階層。各自據自己心得和人生經驗表述對該作品的看法，然後記錄總結。可以得出各種不同的評價。文藝座談會在大陸開得多，香港卻罕見。

評估學中有一個「專家鑒賞模式」（Educational Connoisseurship & Criticism）(Guba, 1987:207; Eisner,1985:103-119)。簡單地說，這種方法頗倚賴評審者的鑑賞力或真識力(Connoisseurship)。調酒師訓練、藝術品鑒賞課程、戲劇訓練班或文藝學院錄取新生時，主考人本身就要充當伯樂——需要有這種真識力，即鑑賞能力。香港人吃菜講究「鑊氣」——那是甚麼一回事，恐怕一時也無法由科學方法解釋，祇有陸文夫(1986:1-85)筆下的「美食家」能發揮作用。由這麼一班專家坐下來談，那是真正的「專家評鑒」。至若找二三十個一般群眾來座談，是為了考量作品的通俗程度——高音女歌手的演唱會一般不賣座，鄧麗君和梅艷芳一開口就大紅特紅。文學作品不應該是永遠藏於金字塔的碑文。

利用問卷查問專家，或「問題—實驗」式策略考核一般讀者，祇要取樣恰當，當亦能取得可信和可靠的資料，而得到同樣的結果。

作品評價的另一角度是核對內容寫實性和概括性。例如夏衍(1978)《包身工》，寫的是三十年代從農村到上海福臨路東洋紗廠勞動的包身工的悲慘遭遇，但事實是否那樣悲慘，作者是否誇張或弄虛作假，還有待於核實。怎樣核實呢？過去的老方法是舉辦控訴會——文革時控訴會城鄉皆是，控訴內容多少是真，多少是假，臭老九應當最清楚。如果運用評估原理，趁著故老尚在，客觀地作社會調查，輔以檢索舊有文獻（如報紙新聞、政府文告、工廠檔案），也許還能找出一些證據，作為佐證或反證。張美美(1999)即利用舊有文獻撰寫碩士論文《探討夏衍包身工的真實性與藝術價值》。作品是否達到寫作目的有兩層意義：宣傳功能意義和反映實況意義——兩項意義不一定同時達到。

2. 寫作手法探討和評價

宗璞(1991:42-55)短篇小說〈心祭〉寫黎倩分和程抗的不尋常戀情。當中有這麼一段小插曲：

> 他們回到招待所，在食堂吃飯時，程抗向她走過來。「你們跑到哪裡去了？這是收穫嗎？」他的

目光落在她衣袋中的樺樹皮上。他從袋中也掏出一張，「我也有！」他興致勃勃，好像孩子們比賽玩具一樣。「我看你的！」兩人不覺交換了樹皮，立刻都變了顏色。原來兩張樹皮上都寫著「深淵」兩個字。

初讀這段文字時，直覺地想起《三國演義》(羅貫中, 1989:597)第四十六回一段情節——周瑜問孔明破曹之法，孔明建議「各自寫于手內」，結果「各出掌中之字」，均是「火」字。如果〈心祭〉是古代作品，我們說作者受了《三國演義》影響，大概也是可以的——宗璞是國學大師馮友蘭的女兒，長期受中國文化熏陶。後來有機會見到宗璞先生，特地問及此事，她說寫的時候並沒有想到《三國演義》這一節。這算是以訪談查問真相。

研究現代文學的好處是，我們與作家並存於世，許多細節可以通過訪談得到確切的答案。而評論古代作家和作品，祇能通過文獻考據，而且得到的不一定是正確的答案。當然，有的作家會遺忘往事，有的不一定說真話，例如關於某個大紅作家有情人的事，就曾經鬧得滿城風雨——直接有關的人士通常是不願說真話的，但追求事實的真，發生的就是發生的，在特殊的環境裡發生的事世人是可以諒解，何必一定要隱瞞真相，欺騙天下？

訪談的另一個有效例子是日本學者鈴木正夫(1996)追尋郁達夫死因的研究。在他長達十六年的追蹤訪問中，明查暗訪，終於找到殺害郁達夫的兇手，參與者雖有幾個人，但可確認主使者是個人行為。這次謀殺的動機主要出於兇手欲隱藏罪證，保護自己不受軍事審判，與帝國主義侵略祇是間接關係而已。相對於過去一味譴責帝國主義罪行，這似乎澄清了一點誤解。

香港作家也斯(1996)《煩惱娃娃的旅程》第七章「知識」至第十一章「回程」以英文字母為代號寫及許多人，其中Y是我中學同學、U是文學院同學、W在某理工大學教寫作，該是認識的。如果求「真」，我是可以通過訪談，瞭解他們當日與也斯共遊的情形——當然，每個人的記憶和對事物的選材可能不一樣。

訪談是「質性資料分析」(Miles et al., 1984)常用的有效手段，也是評估活動重要策略之一。

3. 作家與作品研究

香港理工大學教授曾文婷(1999)的博士論文《達夫心經——郁達夫的心理分析》全面使用佛洛伊德性心理學說解釋郁達夫的行為和作品。這本書最值得欣賞的是，作者親自訪問了許多與郁達夫有關的人，尤其是見過郁氏的，當中有郁氏的親人和朋友，以及與許多在生者通訊請教，解答了不少研究中的疑難。訪談和通信查問所獲得的資料，對於作者的研究和判斷肯定有極大的幫助。

吳俊(1992:260)《魯迅個性心理研究》談及魯迅家族成員的「特異個性」和「變態心理」問題，提到魯迅曾祖母戴氏，祖父周介孚，父親周伯宜，從叔祖周子京（與周介孚是同祖父的堂兄弟），同高祖的堂叔周鳳桐和從叔祖周椒生（與周介孚是同曾祖的堂兄弟），都有心理或精神問題，周子京且最後完全失常，發瘋而死。這可從一個側面窺探魯迅可能（並非必然）受遺傳基因或相同的生活環境影響而有精神病。這有相當高的說服力，而資料來自病理記錄（儘管不是得自醫生的第一手病歷記錄）。由此我們可以想到，生老病死既是每個人都經歷的事，我們有幸與作家生於同一世紀，較容易蒐集到一些原始材料——假如不被控告侵犯私隱權的話，是可以充分利用一切資訊來研究作家的心理、生理狀態，補充其傳記材料，並拿來與作品比照而觀。

宗璞(1991:116-273)在中篇小說《三生石》裡描述梅菩提的生病和住醫的種種經歷，看來是乳癌——其種種跡象似是作家自己的影子。研究者當然不能胡亂推測，應該設法找尋作者的病歷卡，或訪問主診醫生，即能科學地證明一切。

4. 作家與讀者研究

如果要研究作家的知名度，或受歡迎程度，或其作品對當代人的影響廣度，可以用寄問卷、電話訪問(吳統雄,1984)、或街頭訪談方式蒐集數據，分析以得之。評估前應確定你想達致甚麼目標，取甚麼材料，用甚麼方法去取這些材料，如何詮釋，每一個步驟是否可行，要耗費多少金錢和時間，等等。當然，研究結果有甚麼用，也得考慮。

作家其實可以委託他人評估其作品之銷量，影響力——如一本書多少人看？你欣賞他那些優點或缺點？希望他寫些甚麼？從而改善或改向。

5. 評估「研究方法」

香港政府多次想實施道路電子收費計劃，意欲通過收費控制汽車流量。每次提出計劃之前，政府都做一個可行性評估，同時在某一小區試行一段短時間。在掌握數據後進行總結評估。不過，香港一直沒有實行，原因是公眾反對，倒是鄰邦新加坡率先實行了。

研究者研究一篇文章、一部作品、一個作家、一類文體或一種文學現象之方法是否合理、有效，是否最佳

方法，均可於事前、中途或事後評估。事前意味著屬於可行性評估，選取最佳路向(approach)。中途評估則試圖扭轉局勢或另尋他法。事後評估則總結成果，核對先前之研究目的是否達到，是否需使用另外一種辦法重新探討與詮釋。

許多評估模式都可以用於評估「研究方法」，例如專家鑒賞法、實用評估法、需求評估、目的評估(goal evaluation)等，最重要的一點視乎你的目的何在。假設一位研究生聘請顧問來評估其研究計劃是否可行，顧問首先該問他：「你希望我的評估達致甚麼成果？」「找出最佳研究方法！」他們該討論一下，所謂最佳，應選擇哪些項目做為目標或準則——達致速度快？經費省？字數多？方法新？素質好（觀點新？證據足？語言雅？邏輯強？）……

五・結語

1. 可用與不可用

教育評估並非萬能藥方，它的目的原非用於文藝批評，本文所談的祇是「借鑒」或借用而已。從以上分析和舉例大致可以瞭解，評估原理在下列幾方面可能有借鑒價值：(1)文學政策制訂，(2)文學產品（刊物及書籍）出版需求評估（如讀者興趣與創作關係），(3)當代作家對當代人的影響（知名度比較、作品影響度比較），(4)作品推銷策略，(5)寫作過程中作品（如報刊連載小說）內容轉向之指導，(6)大部作品修改之工作效益選取，(7)作品品評（專家評審，普通讀者評審）之法則及可信性及有效度之追求，(8)研究方法之選擇。

現代文學作品與現代社會關係密切，研究作品所寫的社會現象和社會問題，最好借助現成的或自己動手進行的調查結果作為基礎材料——這也許須間接觸及各種評估方法和手段。

文學屬八大藝術之一，其特質是利用語言(或文字)融注藝術技巧來表達人的思想感情。而教育評估主要方向是優選法和問題解決法，文學評論中常見之感情分析、哲理比附和思想內容比附的分析法，恐怕不易使用評估策略代替。但傳統印象式批評，如詩話對詩詞的提示，桐城派古文家對古文的評點，卻與專家評鑒式的評估很相似。產品評估之理論和策略與現代作文評改法較接近，若借此形式評估現代文學作品，可能會有幫助。

2. 展望

二十一世紀應該是全人類追求幸福——追求自由、民主、人權和公義的時代。人在不損害他人合理權利的同時應有充分的選擇權，享受思想自由，謀求人性解放。喜歡使用教條式文藝批評的人仍可以繼續其方法，不喜歡的人則應該別有選擇。在文學研究範圍裡，可以引進種種社會科學手段，利用科學技術，利用社會調查，利用統計原理，進行研究分析，所得結果會更客觀地瞭解人類愛好，瞭解人群心理，瞭解人性要求，瞭解同胞的生活願望——生活並非必須像有些人所規定的那樣，必須千萬次讓人鬥垮鬥臭鬥死，然後獲得一次光榮平反，才算精彩，才算有意義。

作家以及研究者，都不妨利用評估或教育評估，直接或間接地，調查人性陰暗光明，調查人群心理苦樂，調查社會生活境況，調查男女老幼的生活願望，然後找出創作路向，或利用有關數據去比對作品的思想內容、技巧作風，然後著手於作品比較、作家比較、理論比較等等，以引導人類走進美的世界。

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(Received: 23.6.00, accepted 8.9.00, revised 28.9.00)

比內智力測驗與多元智能建構探微

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本文首先提出三道關於「全人教育」、「適性教育」和「素質教育」的問題，啟發讀者對「智能」和「智能公平」概念的思考。接著分析一個傳統的智力測驗（中國比內測驗）的內容和評量方法，指出此類測驗的落後和偏隘之處。經文獻分析，本文綜合論述Gardner八項多元智能（Multiple Intelligences - MI）的核心內容和表徵，方便教師藉觀察和多元化評量了解學童的智能架構。最後，本文將傳統IQ跟當代MI評量思想作一比較。

An Examination of the Binet Intelligence Test and Multiple Intelligence Constructs

This paper starts by raising three questions related to issues of All Round Education, Individually Configured Education, and Quality Education so as to provoke readers to think about concepts of Intelligence and meanings of Intelligence-Fair in educational settings. A traditional IQ test, Chinese Binet Intelligence Test, is then analyzed to show its narrow coverage and out-of-date measurement philosophy. Through review of relevant literature, this paper seeks to examine the core components of Gardner's multiple intelligence constructs and summarize some of their manifestations. Teachers can base on these to observe and assess via various means students' intelligence framework. A comparison of traditional Binet IQ and contemporary MI measurement philosophies is also presented.

Keywords: Binet Intelligence Test, Multiple Intelligences, Construct Validity, Intelligence Fair
關鍵詞： 比內測驗、多元智能、建構效度、智能公平

一・前言

「全人教育」、「適性教育」、「素質教育」等詞彙，是當代教育工作者經常掛在嘴邊的，以及希望達至的願景。但是，為什麼在基礎教育階段教育工作者主要重視語文和數學能力，以及容忍其他智能類別（例如音樂、空間藝術和人際交往方面）「文盲」的存在？為什麼教師沒有因應學童的優勢才能，設計配套的學習環境，以啟導尚待開展的潛能？為什麼教育研究工作者還沒有詳細探索分析學童所處文化社會所重視的多元智能，以及這些智能與其他智能的關係，以了解如何設計和評鑑學習任務？多元智能理論和「智能公平」學習環境所涉及的理念，是回答上述三道問題的關鍵所在（Gardner，1983 &1999，張國祥，2000a & 2000b）。

二・待答問題

本文旨在分析一個傳統的、自上世紀沿用至今的智力測驗（比內測驗）的內容，說明此測驗所重視的能力是非常狹隘的，因此持有此智能觀念的教師，越是強調語文和數學能力的重要，就越忽視或輕視當代其他同等重要的智能和素養，「全人教育」這願景亦將遙不可及。此外，本文希望辨析Gardner多元智能理論中所論述的八項智能的內涵和表徵，以便教師據此開展校本專業成長計劃，探究如何評量多元智能和建立「智能公平」適性教育環境，並從「應試教育」範式轉向「素質教育」。本文最後扼要的將傳統IQ和當代MI多元智能在評量目的、內容、和方法作一比較，以方便讀者在反思上述三道問題時提供必要的學理基礎（張國祥，2000c）。

三・中國比內測驗內容分析

智力測驗的發展，從1905年起至今已有一個世紀歷史。在本世紀初期，國內有一些老一輩的心理學家把美國幾種智力測驗移植到中國來，其中有陸志偉先生和吳天敏教授，他們在1924年至1982年期間相繼根據《史丹福比內智力測驗》三度修訂而命名的《中國比內測驗》（詳情請參閱顧海根，1999，頁96-98）。本測驗編制更改以往一個試題有不只一個年齡標準的模式，變為每歲三個試題，從2歲到18歲，按年齡安排51個試題組成智力測驗，主試者必須按受試者年齡決定開始測驗的試題，不需要答一些他們應該可以順利通過的項目。這是一個個別進行的測驗，對於受試者的答案，不論對與不對，主試者都不會表示肯定或否定的態度，受試者若繼續有五題未能通過，則停止測試，每通過一題記一分，將得分加上受試者所在年齡組的補加分即得智力測驗總分。

本測驗揚棄傳統的把實足年齡除智力年齡求得智商（通稱比率智商）的方法，改以個人成績與他所在群體的中常成績相互比較的結果為智商（現稱離差智商）。從題目內容分析可以知道本傳統IQ測驗主要是評量語文推理、數量推理、以及視覺空間推理的能力，實在不足以充分反映受試學童的多元智能水平（請參考王珮玲，1998，第199-201頁關於這三項能力之分類情況）。再者，由於須維持測驗內容的保密性，詳細的內容分析資料經本學報評審員研判後，遵從指示略去，僅保留題目標記方便讀者日後分析之用。

- 語文推理能力 - 題目共22題，佔全部題目的43%。主要測量兒童對詞彙認識、語文理解和語文關係等能力，包括下列題目：（2）說出物名、（8）上午和下午、（10）解說圖畫、（14）說反義詞(一)、（15）推斷情景、（16）指出缺少物、（21）造語句、（22）正確答案（23）對答問句、（26）指出謬誤、（32）填字、（34）對比關係、（37）說出共同點、（38）語句重組(一)、（40）說反義詞(二)、（41）拼字、（42）評判語句、（45）說明含義、（47）語句重組(二)、（49）解釋成語、（50）明確對比關係、（51）區別語義。
- 數量推理能力 - 題目共14題，佔全部題目的27%。主要測量兒童數量概念、數字排列和算術運算等能力，包括下列題目：（6）數13個鈕扣、（7）問手指數、（12）倒數20至1、（13）心算(一)、（17）心算(二)、（18）找尋數目、（27）數學巧術、（29）心算(三)、（31）時間計算、（33）盒子計算、（39）倒背數目、（43）數立方體、（46）填數字、（48）校正錯數。
- 視覺空間推理能力 - 題目共13題，佔全部題目的25%。主要測量兒童圖形分析、仿造仿繪、辨認空間等能力，題目包括：（1）比圖形、（3）比長短線、（4）拼長方形、（5）辨別圖形、（9）簡單迷津、（11）找尋失物、（19）找尋圖樣、（20）對比圖樣、（25）剪紙、（28）方形分析(一)、（30）迷津、（35）方形分析(二)、（44）幾何圖形分析。
- 短期記憶能力 - 題目包括（24）描畫圖樣、（36）記故事，佔全部題目的4%。

四・多元智能建構內涵和表徵

參考Gardner的多元智能理論（Gardner, 1983, 1999），再經文獻分析本文所列舉之參考書目，八項智能建構內涵和表徵經綜合整理後扼要論述如下：

1. 語文智能

按Gardner的解釋，擁有語言智能的兒童能感受到語音及詞性的音樂韻律效果，嫻熟字詞排列順序及詞類變化規則，理解字辭含義和言外之意，以及掌握不同語言的語用功能（例如史詩、抒情小品、委婉謝函等）。由於語言的中心在於耳聽口說部分，因此語言四大要素中，「語音」和「語法」較為接近語言智能核心，跟讀寫部分偏重的「語義」和「語用」相比，較為不需要環境因素配合而發展。這些能力和素養通常在詩人、作家、教師、翻譯員、售貨員、公關、和律師的身上發現。

語文智能的表徵
1.與人交流時，細心聆聽，善用言語。
2.明白指示和說話內容，善記人名、地點、瑣事細節。
3.能看圖說故事，用豐富詞彙編寫故事。
4.喜歡文字遊戲、順口溜、雙關語、繞口令。
5.能用說話表達想法、情緒和需求。
6.喜歡看書、有良好的閱讀習慣。
7.會朗讀課文和聽講故事。
8.能運用所學的字、詞和句式寫作。
9.喜愛寫日記、討論、辯論等應用語言文字的活動。

2. 邏輯 - 數學智能

按Gardner的解釋，擁有邏輯 - 數學智能的兒童講求精確簡約，追求量化，力求客觀，能夠進行複雜計算和運算，辨識抽象形態、關係和連結，發掘重要問題，運用邏輯來考慮命題和驗證假設，懂得運用歸納、演繹和類比推理進行思考，掌握科學的解決問題策略和步驟，包括後設認知和證明過程。這些能力和素養通常在數學家、科學家、工程師、獵人、偵探、律師以及會計師的身上發現。

邏輯 - 數學智能的表徵
1.喜歡把事物進行分配、分類、分等。
2.喜歡尋找事物的規律、形式及邏輯順序。
3.喜愛拼圖、棋類或其他運用數學策略的遊戲。
4.喜歡提出假設性問題，或思索如何進行某項試驗。
5.喜歡提問，相信事物都有合理的解釋。
6.懂得估算、或進行快速心算。
7.喜歡利用計算機、電腦解題和參加計算遊戲。
8.喜歡數學課，參與數學和科學活動。
9.喜歡聽偵探推理、數學家和科學家的發明故事。

3. 空間智能

按Gardner的解釋，擁有空間智能的兒童能隨心所欲地操弄物件的角度和位置，在不同環境中穿梭自如，解讀視覺和空間的訊息，知覺到外在和內在的影像，並具備擬想、修正、或創造心智圖像的能力。這些能力和素養通常在司機、航海家、飛機師、畫家、棋手、雕塑家、建築師、藝術鑑賞家、博物學家、理論物理學家，以及軍事戰略家的身上發現。

空間智能的表徵
1. 喜愛隨手塗畫。
2. 喜愛玩拼圖、走迷宮、堆積木、或砌模型等想象遊戲。
3. 喜愛閱讀地圖，觀看設計圖及含圖像作品。
4. 喜愛想象，容易想入非非，與心中構念作想像的對話。
5. 對色彩很敏感，能清楚描述視覺意象（如面貌、風景）。
6. 對環境具高度方向感，穿梭自如，按圖索驥。
7. 喜歡看電影和其他視覺藝術表演。
8. 喜歡手工、美術、勞作、視覺藝術課。
9. 會選擇材料、用具，依自己意念進行設計創作。

4. 身體 - 動覺智能

按Gardner的解釋，擁有身體動覺智能的兒童懂得運用身體動作來表達意念，以及善於運用身體機智的處理物體，他們的身體技巧動作表現靈活優雅，且具有相當優良的空間、時間、速度和力量感。這些能力和素養通常在魔術師、運動員、舞蹈員、默劇演員、器樂家、工匠、外科醫師、獵人和拳擊手的身上發現。

身體 - 動覺智能的表徵
1.喜愛體育活動和肢體遊戲。
2.喜愛透過身體感覺（如手觸摸）進行學習。
3.喜愛驚險刺激遊戲和戶外活動。
4.喜愛使用手勢和肢體語言。
5.善於模仿他人的動作和言行舉止。
6.喜愛動手完成細緻的手工藝作品。
7.喜愛拆解和組裝物件。
8.善於協調各部分身體動作（如跳舞、演戲、體操）。
9.較難長時間坐著不動。

5. 音樂智能

按Gardner的解釋，擁有音樂智能的兒童對音調、旋律、節奏、韻律和音色展現敏感，對音樂所表達的意念和效果懂得賞析，並能藉表演將感情傳達給聽眾，造詣高的更能掌握形式音樂的理論和表現效果。這些能力和素養通常在歌唱家、演奏家、作曲家、指揮家、唱詩騎師的身上發現。

音樂智能的表徵
1.喜愛隨意吟唱、不自覺用手腳輕敲節拍。
2.喜愛吹口哨、唱歌、唱遊活動。
3.喜愛聽音樂、彈奏樂器。
4.嗓音好。
5.講話時很有節奏感。
6.能辨別音樂走調。
7.善於記憶歌曲旋律。
8.能隨音樂的節奏，用律動來表達。
9.參加樂隊、合唱團。

6. 人際智能

按Gardner的解釋，人際智能涵蓋善解人意、以及與人互動交往的能力。擁有此智能的兒童懂得和他人相處交流，能夠分辨別人的性情和情緒，察覺別人的意圖、動機、慾望和信念，懂得審視社會形勢從中協調和

尋求共識，有很多朋友和熱衷於群體活動，在社交聚會中往往顯露出領導才能，有能力影響一群信眾或下屬依自己慾望和目標辦事。這些能力和素養通常在推銷員、公關人員、教師、商業顧問、政治家、宗教領袖、以及公眾人物身上發現。

人際智能的表徵
1. 傾聽別人的說話，懂得互動，溝通良好。
2. 懂得察言觀色（性情、動機、意圖），適切回應他人的脾氣和情緒。
3. 樂意接納別人的意見，具同理心，能審時度勢，協調並化解爭議。
4. 懂得關心、體諒和幫助別人。
5. 樂意與人分工合作，喜愛角色扮演和集體遊戲。
6. 孝順父母、尊敬師長、和睦友愛、待人有禮。
7. 守秩序、學會等待、接受輪候。
8. 具團隊精神，既盡職又努力奉獻。
9. 喜歡與他人交往，有很多朋友，在社交聚會中顯現領導才能。

7. 內省智能

按Gardner的解釋，內省智能涵蓋兒童如何建構正確自我知覺的能力，並能善用這些知識來計畫和導引自己的人生。擁有此智能的兒童有自知之明和自我感覺，知道自己的能力和不足之處，覺知自己的內心想法、性情、價值觀和生存目的，能自我控制和自我激勵，是一個非常個體化的人，其個性與想法往往與主流不同。這些能力和素養通常在小說家、心理治療師、律師、未來學家、哲學家，以及智慧的老人身上發現。

內省智能的表徵
1. 能適切表達自己的感受和想法。
2. 能客觀評價自己，知道自己的優、缺點。
3. 誠實、坦白、勤於反省、勇於認錯。
4. 活潑開朗、不隨便發脾氣。
5. 明事理、擁有自尊、懂得自律。
6. 能集中注意力、依時完成工作。
7. 明確訂定自我需要實現的目標。
8. 喜歡獨自工作、遊戲和學習。
9. 善於計劃和分配日常生活時間。

8. 自然觀察者智能

按Gardner的解釋，擁有自然觀察者智能的兒童懂得在自然環境中，敏銳的、好奇的覺察各式各樣物種和辨認千變萬化自然景物型態，並按其屬性和特徵分門別類，這能力在兒童成長過程中會逐漸伸延至人造物世界，如分辨香水、洋酒、寶石等消費物品。同時，這些兒童懂得如何愛護自然生物及保護生態環境，也喜愛飼養動物和可以跟它們作精巧的溝通。這些能力和素養通常在生物學家、園藝學家、考古學家、收藏家、廚師、農夫、漁夫、馴獸師和獵人的身上發現。

自然觀察者智能的表徵
1. 對植物、動物、自然生態環境有好奇心、保護意識和關懷之情。
2. 對自然界事物具有敏銳的感覺，如聲音、色彩、氣味、香味和質感。
3 很快熟悉生物和自然景物的名稱、特徵、分類方法和跟其有關的資料。.
4. 專注留意自然環境和周遭生活環境的變化，特別是突變和不尋常現象。
5. 喜愛收集標本、飼養動物、種植花草樹木，參加園藝或野外活動。
6. 喜愛閱覽與自然景象和動植物主題的節目、圖書和展示。
7. 喜歡使用儀器來探究自然世界，如望遠鏡、放大鏡、顯微鏡等。
8. 能夠有系統的記錄所收藏的標本和將新發現歸門別類。
9. 善用自然世界（如垂釣、烹飪）和樂於分享自己探索自然萬物的經驗。

審視Gardner八種多元智能建構的核心成分，再配合兒童發展規律所呈現的表徵，各學校是可以因應學童樣本常模特徵設計出一個既符合辦學理念，又具學理基礎的校本多元智能量表，來評核每位學童多元智能進展水平。量表的項目須符合發展重要性及評量可行性兩大原則，設計模式必須確保所評量的建構符合評量背境，充分考慮評量分數對課程設置和教學安排是否切題，從而在評量分數用途方面提高多元智能量表的建構效度（關於量表設計與施測，請參閱張國祥，2000d & 2000e，Messick，1989）。

五、傳統IQ跟當代MI評量比較

Gardner（1999）在《智能重構：邁向廿一世紀的多元智能》對多元智能的性質作出了說明：多元智能是

具有生物心理特性的潛能，能夠處理感知器官在特定文化背境中被激活的訊息，作用是解決問題和創造受文化重視的物品。多元智能理論的訊息直接和可行，它提出每位兒童都具備不止發展一種潛能的可能性，而且這些發展是受到兒童所處的社會文化所規範和促進的，評量目的正是要了解此智能架構發展過程，和觀察每位兒童的八項智能與眾不同之處，要做到這點，評量內容必須智能公平和符合兒童發展規律，同時不應該脫離評量背境和與生活脫節。再者，由於並不存在適用於不同學科和學術範疇普遍的解決問題能力和創新途徑，多元智能理論認為最重要的是兒童能夠完成老師設計的學習任務，而這些任務是可以運用多種智能（不只是語文和邏輯數學）在學童的最大發展區來完成的（關於如何落實多元智能和多元化教學評量，參閱Torff, 1997, Lazear., 1999a, 1999b & 1999c, Cohen, Stern & Balaban, 1999， 黃意舒，1996，李坤崇，1999）。

因此，多元智能評量是兒童為本的，是標準參照的，教師須解釋智能進展水平的標準，以及評分的適用性。它並不像傳統的IQ智商測驗，是以所評量的有限度測驗內容為本的，主要考量是測驗內部建構跟其他相關心理建構的依存關係。它也不是在施測過程中必須標準化，以力求精確的區分學童上智下愚為目標的常模參照評量；傳統的IQ測驗（例如中國比內測驗）依題目難度來作年齡分組根據，即某歲數兒童樣本中約有50%能通過的題目便被訂為該歲數評量題目代表，因此計算受試者最終全部通過的題目組，以及部分通過的題目組的題目數，就可累加得心理年齡，再跟實足年齡相比即得出比率智商（Ratio IQ）；由於心理年齡和實足年齡未能隨受試者長大而同步增長，以及相同的比率智商在不同的年齡組別具有不同的意義，遂有離差智商（Deviation IQ）的作法，即以某年齡組常模樣本智力測驗標準分數，按常態分布將平均訂為100，標準差15，因此可將離差智商輕易的轉換成原來的標準分，從而知道受試者的智力在常模樣本的位置（葛樹人，1996）。

六・總結

假若在基礎教育階段教育工作者不單重視語文和數學能力，而是多元智能的培養，那麼教育工作者的焦點是否可以不著眼於掃除字盲偏陋「文盲」，而是如何設計「智能公平」全人教育環境呢。假若教師能夠因應學童的優勢才能，設計配套的學習環境，以啟導尚待開展的潛能，那麼兒童的學習成功是否可以不再建立在反覆失敗和補救教學之上，從而更為想學、會學和樂學呢。假若教育研究工作者已經詳細分析了學童所處文化社會中所重視的多元智能，以及這些智能與其他智能的關係，那麼教師是否可以更為了解每一種受他們所處文化社會所重視的活動所涵蓋的智能要求和水平，從而知道如何為學童設計學習任務，達至「因勢利導、因才配套」這願景。Gardner 之多元智能理論，雖然沒有提供具體的教學策略，但教育工作者若能對「智能」與「智能公平」觀念作一深刻反思，對學童間差異予以尊重，對學童所處社會文化予以關注，對學童求知方式多作探討，以及對學童學習機會多給予選擇，本人深信下一代所受的教育將會是非常不同的。

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(Received: 22.10.00, accepted 15.2.01, revised 1.3.01)

香港大學學制的演變

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有關香港大學教育學制的爭議，從五十年代討論中大的成立時已曾發生；自中大於六三年成立後，香港兩間大學是各有其年制和自行收生的，形成了中學教育的雙軌制。七十年代中大反對四改三運動亦是一個學制爭議；及後港府以合併預科考試為題，在教統會第三號報告書中，統一了中學學制，要求各大專院校採用劃一的取錄程序，間接地促使了香港高等教育全面走向英式專才。回歸後，特區政府提出全面檢討教育制度，其中關鍵點是大學學制；為此教統會提出一體化的三年高中教育，這將使香港大學學制邁向六四制，與國際主流學制接軌。此文重點是以歷史角度剖析上個世紀以來香港學制的四次爭議。

Developmental Change on the Duration of Undergraduate Programme in Hong Kong

There are four debates on the duration of undergraduate programme in Hong Kong at last century. Since the Chinese University of Hong Kong is established in 1963, the two universities have their own system in admission and duration of undergraduate programme. The Hong Kong University with three-year undergraduate programme serves pupils from Anglo-Chinese School and admits them according their results in the Advance Level Examination. While the CUHK admits pupils from Chinese Middle School with Higher Level Examination results. However, Education Commission in ECR3 on 1986 suggests combining the two matriculations. After reunion, the Chief Executive of HKSAR government entrust the EC to conduct a comprehensive review of the education system. Later the EC suggest providing a new three-year senior secondary education. It seems there may be another change to be happen in the duration of undergraduate programme in Hong Kong. No matter how, it is worthy for people to have a historical review on this issue.

前言

香港大學學制的爭議，是伴隨著香港教育制度發展的一個重要問題，從中文大學的成立，到七十年代的《高中及專上教育發展》綠皮書，八十年代的教統會第三號報告書，大學的學制皆是一個關鍵的議題。香港特區政府成立後，特區首長在其首份《施政報告》中提出有必要仔細研究香港的整個教育制度架構。並要求教育統籌委員會全面檢討小學學前、小學、中學以至高等教育的架構，研究每個教育階段的適當入學年齡、修業年期和課程編排、各個階段的銜接問題，以及有關高等教育四年制的問題（董建華，1997，頁28）。以此政策方向，教育統籌委員會於九九年進行一個三階段的教育制度檢討，當中建議將高中教育一體化（教育統籌委員會，1999，頁6），這有可能會促使香港現行的三年制大學教育，轉變為四年制；從中亦顯示出大學學制也是今次教育檢討的核心議題之一。但要有效的思考香港在新世紀的大學學制，探討今次大學改制的利與弊，看來有必要客觀的回顧香港教育的相關歷史。而此文的重心，正是以一個教育史的視角，分析過往香港社會中四次與大學制有關的爭議，從而為反思香港今次大學改制提供一個更理性的基礎。

大學雙軌制的建立

一九一一年，香港大學成立，揭開了香港高等教育的序幕，在二次世界大戰以前，香港只有一所英式四年制大學，而因香港毗連中國內地，每年皆有不少中學畢業生回內地升讀中文授課的大學，故港大雖不能容納所有的升大學生，但本地升讀非港大的需求仍是不大，及至大戰結束和四九年中華人民共和國的成立，此種情況有變。正如香港政府在教署年報中指出：中國大陸近年的政治轉變和難民的湧入，創造了香港中文高等教育的需求，中文高等教育的迫切需求已引起政府和大學的關

注，港督於一九五一年委任一個高等教育委員會研究有關問題（譯自香港政府，1954，頁8）。以賈士域為主席的研究委員會於一九五二年提交了一份關於本港高等教育的報告書，其結論中指出：「香港高等教育中缺乏了以中文為教育媒介的課程，實為香港教育制度上最大的缺憾。」該報告書並建議：「目前最急切需要發展的是利用香港大學已有之設備，全力發展以中文為授課語言之課程……」（見鄭艾倫，1979，頁6-7）。這個建議立即引起大學教務會的注意及支持，但卻被香港大學校董會所否決，其理由是認為在當時香港局勢未趨明朗，作如此重大的改變實屬不宜（謝家駒，1982，頁45）。但另一方面，教育行政當局卻為使香港學制更適合當地的需要，於一九五一年作了一次劃時代的改革，將大學的年限縮短了一年，正如馬鴻述及陳振名在《香港華僑教育》一書中指出，那次大學課程的學年，「比方醫科，原是六年，現已縮為五年。其他各科，原是四年，現已縮為三年」（1958，頁31）。

與此同時，戰後有多間中文私立學院相繼成立，包括有四九年成立的新亞書院、五一年創立的崇基書院、五六年分別成立的浸會書院和聯合書院等，正如當時的中文學院聯合會（1958）指出：現在各院學生總數已增至三千九七人，不及一年增加百分之三十八。七校學生均告增加，各校報告本學人數較上學期增加百分之十五至六十七不等。此誠為一驚人的發展速成率，顯示吾人極需決定各該學院及畢業生之前途（頁40）。因應社會對中文高等教育的需求，一九五九年六月港府宣佈考慮成立一所以中文為主要教學媒介的大學，並於同年八月開始撥款資助崇基、新亞、聯合三所專上學院；到一九六三年四月，港府發表"富爾敦報告書"建議成立一所以上述三所書院為成員書院的聯邦大學，並於當年十月成立香港中文大學（李汝大，1987，頁17）。而在考慮第二所大學的成立之際，香港教育委員會亦於六零年提出中文中學改制，對原有中文中學的三三制改變，改制後的中文學校學制為"六、五、二、四"，即是小學六年，中學五年，大學預科一年，大學四年（王齊樂，1996，頁346）。自此以後，香港的英文中學與中文中學並存。前者依從英國傳統，即五年中學，兩年預科，三年大學；後者沿襲中國大陸模式，中中生畢業之後，要修讀一年中六預科，才能報考中大。於是乎，政府在統一中學年制的同時，卻在預科和大學階段保留雙軌制（吳倫霓，1993，頁68）。這奠定了中學教育雙軌制的基礎。

七十年代反對四改三

惟在七十年代，香港的中六教育情況異常混亂，原有升大的雙軌制受到衝擊，當中有許多英文中學二年制的學生在中六第一年課程時，參加高等程度會考，並在第一年完結時就不再繼續讀第二年（香港政府布政司署，1981，頁244）。這造成了高級程度第二年課程學額的浪費，亦間接加強了預科生的考試壓力。針對此混亂的情況，政府一方面通過中英文中學會考合併，大力扶助英文中學，以使中文中學自然淘汰；另一方面則要求中大將四年制改成三年，以統一大學學制。當中的具體的行動包括有：一九七六年十二月通過中大改制法案的立法局會議席上，三位非官守議員提議統一大學入學試，改中大為三年制。及於七七年一月由金夢麟及七間中學校長組成的中六教育工作委員會報告書，建議將中六變為兩年制（楊鍾基，1981，頁82-83）。而最重要的措施是於七七年十一月發表的《高中及專上教育綠皮書》，其中第十章五節提到「如果中文大學決定將大學課程（醫科除外）由四年減為三年，與港大看齊，同時採用兩年共同中六課程……則本港大學生人數可以進一步增加……」（見吳倫霓，1993，頁70）。在此可見政府有明顯的舉動迫使中大學制由四改三。

然而，這個建議引起了中大師生強烈的反對，一九七八年二月十五日舉行"師生團結反對四改三"大會，出席師生達二千六百人。二月十七日，中大校董會召開會議，決定堅持四年制，中大師生上下一心，態度堅決，使四年制得以維持十多年，也令中大教與學質素得以鞏固發展（黃嫣梨，1996，頁214-215）。正如國際顧問團(1982)的總結指出：「我們深信香港中文大學有很多獨特和有價值的貢獻，如要兩所大學改為一模一樣，則會是教育界的損失」(頁78)。這種大學學制多元化的考慮，使中大的四年制得到保留。但政府改革中六教育的決心並無改變。並於七九年發表了由教育委員會成立中六教育委員會《中六教育研究小組報告書》，建議：修訂現行的中六教育，使盡量簡化及減少學生所參與的公開考試；並分別要求課程發展委員會和考試局負責制定中六課程及就教學課程綱要制定考試課程綱要（見吳明欽，1984，頁120-121）。而這個有關預科統一的建議，埋伏了日後大學學制爭論的點火線。

八十年代統一大學學制

到了八十年代這個大中學的雙軌制，只能提供一個短暫的平衡。一九八四年中大施行的暫取生制度，吸引了不少優秀預科生入讀，引起了一些異議和爭論。在八六年八月，教統會第二號報告書提出中學預科統一為兩年制，建議設立一綜合「中六」課程，即保留兩年制高級程度課程、取消高等程度課程（教育統籌委員會，1986，頁70）。這個建議表面上是呼應香港教育界減少公開考試壓力的要求，其背後的含義就是兩大應以同一機制收生。正如當時立法局議員楊寶坤（1987）指出：中六課程不統一，中六考試不統一，加上大學學位奇缺，便造成中六教育不能順應社會要求。中六考試祇應是一種用途廣泛的學歷資格的檢定考試，不同的大學及其他專上學院都就這個試，按其本身不同標準選拔學生。這樣的統一考試制度，對學生來說，一則可減輕考試壓力，二則可從容地去學習（頁47）。這種表面漂亮的說話甚至得到當時香港大學校長的認同，黃麗松（1987）曾公開表態：「由於兩大統一入學標準在我心目中異常重要，我認為如有必要，可以要求香港大學採取四年制，我有很好的理由相信港大將樂意接納這種改變」（頁56 -57）。事實上香港大學早於八六年十一月的教務擴大會議上曾通過決定，實行三改四制（雷強、吳福光、鐘光、鄭天祥，1988，頁152-153）。惟港大這種取態並未能使當時政府接納大學四年制。正如教統會在其《第三號報告書》中清楚指出：一般來說，如果高等教育有更多的資源，當務之急是增加每年進入高等教育院校就讀的學生人數（教育統籌委員，1988，頁54）。當時的教育委員會主席范徐麗泰（1990）也曾表態指出：基於香港教育制度的競爭性，擴充專上學額的需要顯而易見（頁17）。可見所謂減少公開試壓力，只能讓中大的四年制取消，而不可接受港大行美式的四年學制。

但這個政策方面卻受到廣泛的批評，正如學者張五常（1991）曾指出：舉世都是向十二、四那方向發展，而香港所選的是十一、二、三，是幾個選擇中最劣的了（頁87-88）。當時，更有小部分教育界人仕期盼教統會學制建議是不會真正推行的，如賈國強(1989)的分析：「照筆者觀察，三號報告書內跟隨英國模式的統一學制將不會被接納，而現存的多元化學制將會保存下來，學制的不變，將會是本港之福」（頁40）。但令港人唏噓的是，港府卻堅決如實的推行有關建議。八九年二月一日，身兼教育統籌委員會秘書與首席助理教育統籌司的華賢士先生在一個公開論壇表示，中大雖然堅持於九四年前仍然以中六為收生點，但相信中大的做法不會影響更改學制及統一收生點的進度，因為基於撥款程序，中大最遲於九一年須與大學及理工教育資助委員會商討九四年後學位課程的撥款問題（吳倫霓，1993，頁80）。接著行政局便於翌日討論通過了三號報告書的建議，本港大學全部實行三年制課程。為了落實這個政策方向，港府成立了中六教育工作小組報告書，於八九年提出了中六教育的課程新編排，清楚的建議最後一次的高等程度會考，應在一九九二年舉行。這個決定不但統一了預科，結束了中、英文中學的分別，且為大學統一學制創造了條件。事實上，基於資源的限制及加上取消了原有的收生入學點，中文大學再不能對大學四年制有何堅持。這亦促成了接著成立的香港科技大學及後來升格的理大、城大和浸大，皆以三年制為學制的現實。

世紀學制之爭

雖然香港大學學制於九十年代初統一了，但隨著政治的轉變，大學學制的爭論並未有結束，正如教聯會顧問何景安的轉述：前中文大學校長馬臨在九七年初接受記者專訪時這樣說，「現在距離回歸只有很短的時間，港府當年為什麼要強迫中文大學改制，今香港整個學制與英國掛鈎，目的就是為了延續英國在香港的影響。這一點，現在應該看得很清楚了」（見何景安，1999，頁18）。可見，香港有些高等教育工作者認為當年港府統一大學學制是有政治企圖的。此外，預科的統一亦引來了一些的批評，正如香港中文大學評議會常務委員會(1996)的分析：政府削減大學一年的初衷，是把基礎和通識教育推前到預科實施。觀乎過去五年大學新生來源水準下降，即中學預科能否膺此重任，實成疑問。兩年預科的目的原在擴闊課程，但迄今為止，開辦「通識教育科」的中學不到一成。其中的困難是不言可喻的（頁9-10）。再者，礙於公共資源的限制，港府九十年代初將大量的資源投放在擴展高等教育學額，而未有適時地發展高中和預科教育，以使能考入預科並取得合格的學生，便可入讀大學，造成了部份香港大學生質素欠佳的情況。故此，回歸前後，香港社會是有一股很大的呼聲要求大學三改四。

為了探討大學本科教育由三年制延至四年制，香港八間大專院校校長會組成三改四工作小組，成員包括了大學校長及五個中學教育團體代表。在其建議書中，小組重申推行四年制本科課程，有利於各大專院校為學生

提供更均衡教育，配合全人及通識教育政策，而大專院校亦可利用較長的修讀年期，協助學生加強語文及彌補其他方面之不足。在經過數月多次的會議後，考慮到中學與大學教育之合計修讀年期應維持原來之十年，三改四工作小組因此作出五一四之學制建議，即五年中學，一年預科及四年大學。大學校長會一致贊同此學制建議，並認為應盡快推行新制度（香港教師中心編委會，1998，頁1）。但有關建議卻受到強烈的反彈，教評會黃冬柏（1998）指出：八大校長團結一心，罕有地高調推薦五一四學制方案，這個方案早於教統會研究學制小組有成果之前就公開諮詢，這種做法除了對教統會有壓力外，作為一位普通中學教員的筆者也感到有很大的壓力（頁13）；他並進一步指責五一四方案，是一個高等教育界自私的方案，妄顧了教育其他範疇的利益。正如何景安（1999）的評論：大學三年制來已成炊，再改四年制所牽涉問題複雜，可說是牽一髮而動全身。大學學制不能孤立處理，還要和基礎教育學制及總體教育資源一起地全局地考慮（頁18）。基於種種的考慮和限制，教統會亦只能在教育制度檢討的諮詢文件中只提出：假如高中實施三年制，現時三年制的學士學位課程的修讀年期將一般變為四年，但由於每個學士學位課程的性質和內容並不相同，應按每個課程的實際情況和需要在釐定修讀年期（教育統籌委員會，2000，頁78）。而這個建議最終能否落實，於何年才可實現大學四制，至今仍是香港的一個未知之數。

後記

雖然教統會在今次教育制度檢討中，提出了九年普及基礎教育及高中教育一體化的學制，這個九三制的中小教育制度勢將有利他日大學四年制的落實和推行，但從過往香港教育制度的歷史演變，大學學制的更改是與當時的預科及高中教育的課程及考試息息相關；要有效的落實四年制大學教育，教統會暫時仍有不少空白的環節有待填補，正如費雷爾(1999)在歐洲大學入學體制的文章中，指出進入大學學習數量最終在很大程度上是受諸多因素影響的，如教育體制的特點、教育體制的可選擇性、教育體制的相對多樣性、後中學教育的非大學教育機構的可得性、公立和私立學校建制發展水平和大學校址的提供等等(頁88)。現時教統會在諮詢文件中提及與大學三改四的配套措施，當中仍有很多的不足夠。在此願日後成立的高中及高等教育專責小組能細心分析本港學制歷史的得失，並能參考國際社會經驗，以為香港建構一個在新世紀有生命力的大學學制。

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(Received: 22.12.00, accepted 1.2.01, revised: 15.2.01)

從「一條龍」直資中小學看教育機會均等問題

劉鳳鸞

嗇色園可立小學

「一條龍」直資中小學的成立引起教育界人士關注到有關教育機會均等的問題。本文首先試從「教育機會均等」的角度來闡述支持和反對成立「一條龍」直資中小學的人士的理據，然後討論「一條龍」直資中小學的成立對培育精英人才的重要，以及對如何盡量保持「教育機會均等」的問題作出建議。

Direct- Granted Primary and Secondary Schools with " Through Train Model" and Equal opportunity of Education

The establishment of Direct-granted primary and secondary schools with "Through train model " leads to the concern of educators for the issue of equal opportunity of education. This paper first describes the reasons for supporting and opposing the setting up of Direct- granted primary and secondary schools that apply the "Through train model" from the perspective of equal opportunity of education. Then, it discusses the importance of establishing such schools in fostering elite. It also suggests ways to ensure equal opportunity of education.

一・背景

一九八八年六月，教育統籌委員會發表了 <<第三號報告書>>，提及政府極關注香港私校的發展情況。那時候，政府為了要逐漸停止向買位學校「購買」初中學位，處理親中學校申請轉為津貼學校的問題以及提升香港的教育質素，於是推出了「直資計劃」，希望能夠藉著這個計劃，建立一個「強大的私立學校體系」。那時候，參與這個計劃的學校主要是親中學校、國際學校及買位學校，一般資助學校並不積極參與。一九九八年十月，香港特別行政長官董建華在第二份<<施政報告>>中，曾說過要檢討香港現行的私校制度，並希望使私校制度更靈活、更多元化。此外，他亦　鼓勵辦學團體創辦私校，讓家長有更多選擇。一九九九年十月，香港特別行政長官董建華在第三份<<施政報告>>的教育部分中，強調要提高教育質素。董建華為了要達到這個目標，再次強調要檢討私校制度，並提出要積極發展直資學校，建立一個優質私校的體系，令香港的教育多元化。教統會為了配合董建華的建議，便提出了「一條龍」方案，又修訂了八八年的直資計劃。教署官員和教統會鼓勵辦學團體開辦直資中小學，更特別支持一些附設小學部的有名津貼中學，能夠把中小學一起轉為直資學校，實現中小學「一條龍」。

二・名詞釋義

「一條龍」

教統會在改革建議<<終身學習，自強不息>>(1999)中提出了「升中大直路」，那就是說，學生由小學直上中學，期間不設公開試考核學生，並會取消學生成績組別。教統會為了配合「升中大直路」，於是提出了「一條龍」的辦學模式。「一條龍」就是指香港個別辦學理念相同的中、小學聯繫起來，令到中小學的課程可以有更好的連繫。聯繫小學的學生可無須參加統一派位而升讀聯繫中學。「一條龍」的模式多樣，例如：由一間小學和一間學結成「一條龍」，或由多於一間小學及多於一間中學結成「一條龍」。

「直資計劃」

「直資計劃」是「直接資助計劃」的簡稱。「直資計劃」的意念最初是在教統會<<第三號報告書>>(1988)出現。該報告書指出「直資計劃」的兩個重要理念是「在香港這個多元化的社會，私立學校應該有在現行制度下發展的餘地」、「當局應認識到強大的獨立的私立學校體制在教育上的利益」(4.17段)。事實上，政府是想透過「直資計劃」來建立一個「強大的私立學校體系」(4.17段)。參與直資計劃的學校被稱為直資學校，這類

學校一般被歸入私校的一種。轉為直資的學校和一般津貼學校一樣，獲得政府津貼資助。直資學校可以自由收生，選擇學生的方法包括筆試和口試等。此外，直資學校可以自由地製訂課程和收取學費等，自由度較資助學校大。不過，政府會以津貼學校的學生平均的資助成本，按直資學校收取學生的人數來計算應給予的津貼。直資學校還需要自負盈虧，學費是學校的主要收入之一，如果學校的辦學質素差，學校便無法吸納足夠的學生就讀，也因而沒有足夠的經費維持學校正常的運作，最後導致學校倒閉。

「教育機會均等」

其實，「教育機會均等」(equal opportunity of education)是個很複雜的概念，中外教育研究者各有不同的說法：

台灣教育研究者李緒民在<<保障教育機會均等>>(引自張德銳，1998)中說：

「教育機會均等」的意思是指不因性別、宗教信仰、種族、社會階級以及經濟地位等，人人都有機會接受同等教育，並使其天賦才能發揮到最高程度；不但入學機會均等，而且入學之後，應在同等條件下，接受適性教育。所謂同等條件是指學校經費、教學設備、師資素質而言，當然也包括學生家庭背景以及社會文化環境。

美國芝加哥大學比較教育中心安德森(Anderson)(引自謝美慧，1998)認為教育機會均等包括了四個含義：

(1) 教育機會均等即是提供每個人等量的教育；
(2) 教育機會均等是指提供足使每一個兒童達到一既定標準的學校教育；
(3) 提供足使每一個個體充分發展其潛能教育的機會；
(4) 提供繼續教育的機會，直至每一個學生的學習結果符合某種既定的常模者。

美國社會學者高文(Coleman)(引自陳奎熹，1995)認為「教育機會均等」的意義是：

(1) 提供每個兒童至一定水準的免費教育；
(2) 在基本教育階段，無論兒童出生的背景如何，為所有兒童提供一種共同課程；
(3) 促使不同背景的出身的兒童能有入相同學校受教之機會；
(4) 使同一學區的學校在經濟支援的條件上儘量相等。

綜合上述各位學者對「教育機會均等」的看法，「教育機會均等」的理念主要是：(一)不論兒童的出生背景如何，都有相等的機會接受最基本的同等教育；(二)每一個兒童都獲得提供共同課程並能夠得到充分發展其天賦潛能的教育機會。

三・分析

1.「一條龍」直資中小學實施方法

教育署為了進一步發展優質教育，已經在九八至九九學年向香港的買位私校發出通告，邀請買位私校在九九至二零零零年學年轉為直資學校。港府亦計劃從二零零零年度開始，以試驗計劃形式撥出政府興建的校舍，供辦學團體營辦直資中小學，成為「一條龍」直資中小學。有意申請營辦直資學校的辦學團體，必須清楚地列出辦學理想、教學目標及教學質素指標和評估辦法。此外，無論是舊的直資學校(即參與八八年直資計劃的學校)或新的直資學校，都需要和教署簽定五年服務合約(Service Contract)，接受教署的質素保證視學和表現評估，以確保它們的辦學質素。

如果教署發現直資學校違反合約條件或辦學質素差劣，就算合約期未滿，都會取回其辦學權或派出教署人員擔任校董。政府還修訂了八八年的直資計劃，按直資學校的校齡來分配經常性的資助，校齡在十六年以上的直資學校會比校齡在十六年以下的得到更多經常性資助。至於非常性資助方面，新舊直資學校都可以得到政府新增的非經常性工程及設備津貼，這些津貼用以維修斜坡或進行其他大型的維修工程。還有的是，新修訂的直資計劃，令直資學校享有更大的自由度：一.直資學校可以跳離中央派位網絡，向全港學校招收學生；二.直資學校可以脫離或超越政府的教育政策，例如：直資學校可以自訂授課語言，而不一定要採用母語教學。

2. 利弊論爭

香港特別行政長官董建華在第三份<<施政報告>>中提出「要積極發展直資學校，建立一個優質私校的體系，令香港的教育多元化。」的建議，以及教統會推出「一條龍」和「新直資計劃」的教育改革項目，引起了不少教育人士的關注。支持成立「『一條龍』直資中小學」的人士(以下簡稱「支持人士」)認為它能夠培育社會精英，符合社會未來的需要；反對成立「『一條龍』直資中小學」的人士(以下簡稱「反對人士」)，則認為它違反了教育機會平等的原則。這兩類人士各有理由和論據，令香港的教育界掀起了一場激烈的爭論。

1. 支持人士的意見及論據

支持人士認為如果香港過份強調教育機會均等，只顧推行普及教育，而忽略培養社會人才，只會扼殺真正的精英，對香港社會未來的發展有害無益。他們認為參

與「新直資計劃」的「『一條龍』直資中小學」享有很大的自由度，能夠真正達到「拔尖」這個教育意念：直資學校可以把精英拔出來，然後運用更多資源去栽培他們，使他們將來成為社會的中堅分子。他們指出「九年免費及強迫教育」給香港教育帶來很多問題，使香港教育變成平庸教育。一九七九年，港英政府開始實施九年免費及強迫教育，使香港所有適齡的兒童有同等的機會接受基本教育。九年免費及強迫教育推行至今已經二十年，可是，其教育效果並不顯著，浮現的問題卻很多，例如：學生的語文水準日益下降。支持人士認為「九年免費及強迫教育」根本無法為社會培養一群優秀的學生。前自由黨主席李鵬飛更抨擊普及教育製造了很多「垃圾學生」，支持香港發展優質私校(見<<明報>>，1998年8月3日)。一些政府官員也指出，政府每年投資了很多資源在教育方面，不過，不少人對香港的教育素質並不滿意，政府不禁懷疑如果繼續以平均主義的方式來撥款給香港所有學校，有關的資源是否用得其所。因此，政府希望打破教育資源分配的原則，把有限的教育資源分配給部分有潛質的學校，使它們「先富起來」(見<<明報>>，1998年8月12日)。支持人士堅信政府鼓勵成立「『一條龍』直資中小學」是重視精英的表現。直資中小學有利於提高香港的教育素質，幫助香港培養社會精英。

2. 反對人士的意見及論據

反對人士認為「『一條龍』直資中小學」的成立只會令香港多了一些特權學校，使基層學童受到歧視，令社會進一步階級分化，違反了教育機會均等的原則。曾榮光教授(1988)曾在教統會推出八八年的「直資計劃」，以教育均等機會的觀點批判過該計劃，認為「直資計劃」讓直資中學在全港各區以學能優先取錄學生，比本來依地區、只分五級學能，以及依據家長意願的隨機分配，相對地來說是較不公平及不等的。此外，他還認為政府應該把較多的教育資源給予低社經地位、少數民族等「文化不足」的組別。可是，「直資計劃」所作出的不均等教育資源分配卻偏向於「最充足者得益」，會使香港教育制度出現階級分化(頁140)。當「新直資計劃」推出時，曾榮光教授(1999)再次強調有關計劃是不公平和不均等的，並稱「一條龍」直資中小學是「獲得政府額外優惠的津校」(見<<信報>>1999年8月2日)。香港教育專業人員協會(1999)亦認為「一條龍」直資中小學會變成特權學校，尤其是那些歷史悠久而轉為直資的中小學。教協(1999)認為「新直資計劃」不但給予直資中小學很多資助優惠，而且容許它們凌駕一些教育政策，譬如：可以自由地選擇教學語言。還有的是，直資中小學往往收取昂貴學費，這就令基層家庭少了一個選擇學校的權利。反對人士認為「新直資計劃」是以學生的社經背景為入學條件之一，形成不公平的社會現象。「『一條龍』直資中小學」培育的全是有錢的、有背景的精英，不值得推行。

四・結論及建議

政府鼓勵辦學團體參與「新直資計劃」，營辦「『一條龍』直資中小學」，引起了教育界的激烈討論。無論是支持或反對的人士，都有充足的理據。筆者認為香港應該嘗試推行「『一條龍』直資中小學」的計劃，因為直資中小學可以培育社會需要的人才，有助於香港未來的發展。

「教育機會均等」的第一個理念指出「不論兒童的背景為何，都有相等的機會接受最基本的同等教育」，事實上，香港的九年免費教育政策正好做到這一點。香港每名兒童只要適齡，都可以到學校去讀書，接受基礎教育。但是，是不是所有兒童都應該接受同一模式的教育呢？

每個社會都需要精英來幫助社會未來的發展，香港也不例外。香港的天然資源不多，最重要的資源是人才，因此，香港需要好好地分配及運用有限的教育資源，在普及教育制度以外成立一個優質私校體制來培育一群精英。「『一條龍』直資中小學」的成立就是栽培人才的途徑。筆者在文首曾經闡釋「教育機會均等」的兩個重要理念，第二個理念是「每一個兒童都獲得提供共同課程並能夠得到充分發展其天賦潛能的教育機會」。反對人士認為「『一條龍』直資中小學」的成立違反了這個理念，因為直資中小學可以擇優而授之，又可以自行訂定課程內容及授課語言。不過，精英是需要特別培育的，普及教育所提供的「共同課程」根本不能夠符合精英的學習需要。教統會<<第四號報告書>>(1990)在論及香港的普及教育問題時，便指出：「越來越多事例顯示，共同課程雖然可以照顧到大多數學生的需要，但其內容稍欠完整，未能符合學習能力極高和學習能力極低學生的需要。」(1.1.3段)「『共同課程』未能符合學習能力極低學生的需要」的問題不是本文討論的重點，不作評論。教統會正好說明普及教育的不足之處，那就是它不能夠有效地培養精英人才。Davis 和 Moore (1970) 以功能主義(Functionalist) 的教育理念來分析社會精英的出現與他們的社會功能的關係，認為

社會精英往往在社會中擔當很重要的角色，因而被認定為精英。社會精英由於擁有需要長時間學習的專業知識和技能，所以能夠有效地執行工作，而他們的工作是具有特別重要的社會功能的。社會如果要這群社會精英樂意地執行他們的工作，就得給予他們較多的經濟資源、政治權力和社會名望。「教育機會均等」的第二個理念其實亦強調要使兒童「能夠得到充分發展其天賦潛能的教育機會」。如果香港的一些精英人才不能夠從普及教育制度中得到「充分發展其天賦潛能的教育機會」，而政府又不著重尋找培育精英的方法，就是對這群精英人才不公平，就是浪費社會極寶貴的資源。

「一條龍」直資中小學為社會培養精英人才，使他們將來可以在社會中擔任重要的角色，推動社會的發展。最重要的是，直資中小學培育的是「績效精英」(meritocracy)，而不是「世襲精英」(aristocracy)。根據曾榮光(1998)的分析，「績效精英」(meritocracy)就是指那些具有高度智能、專門知識和技能的人才，他們是靠通過學校的選拔機制而獲得精英地位的；「世襲精英」則是指那些不是靠個人才能，而是靠家庭世襲而取得精英地位的人(頁116)。反對人士認為「一條龍」直資中小學把學生的社經地位列入收生條件之一，所收的多是社經地位較高的兒童，也就是「世襲精英」。這種收生條件違反了教育均等機會的第一個理念：「不論兒童的出生背景如何，有相等的機會接受最基本的同等教育。」其實，反對人士反對培育「世襲精英」的想法跟筆者相同。「世襲精英」並不具備特別的才能，如果政府分配較多教育資源來特別培訓他們，便會浪費有限的教育資源。可是，「績效精英」卻應該得到特別的培育。無論這類精英的社經地位怎樣，就必需得到同等的機會，接受政府特別的培育，使其潛能得以發揮。

事實上，只要政府能夠監管「一條龍」直資中小學的運作，控制其學費及鼓勵其設立獎學金，就不會出現只收「世襲精英」的情況。程介明(1999)指出，新加坡自八八年以來，成立了多層次的、較獨立的私立學校體系。這類學校享有高度自主權，又得到政府的足夠補助，因而沒有因為收取學費而變成貴族學校。它們收取的學生中，不少來自低收入的家庭。上海也把一些本來純受公帑支持的「重點學校」，轉為「公辦民助」，讓學校有更大的自由度去培養精英。這類學校所收的並不是「世襲精英」。新加坡及上海的學校的收費受到限制，學校公帑以外的收入並不是來自學費，而是來自捐贈。可見，如果政府要透過「新直資計劃」來有效地培育「績效精英」，就要提供足夠的補助和製定適當的監管制度，保障低社經地位的兒童有入讀直資中小學的機會。

政府的監管制度除了令「一條龍」直資中小學不會收取太昂貴的學費外，也防止它們濫用政府所給予的自由；而市場的機制也具備監察的功能，使「一條龍」直資中小學增加承擔感。反對人士認為「一條龍」直資中小學享有很大的自由度，得到不少優惠，甚至可以凌駕政府的一些教育政策，很容易成為特權學校。不過，政府並沒有放任「一條龍」直資中小學。「新直資計劃」要求辦學團體在申請時，清楚地列出辦學理想、教學目標及教學質素指標和評估方法。此外，新舊直資學校都需要和教署簽定五年服務合約(Service Contract)，接受教署的質素保證視學和表現評估。辦學質素差劣或違反合約的直資中小學，都會遭到教署取回辦學權。「一條龍」直資中小學所得到的是更多教育資源和自由度，而不是特權。另外，「一條龍」直資中小學還需要面對法團留強的市場機制。它們要保持一定的水準，才可以吸引到精英就讀，才可以繼續運作。因此，「一條龍」直資中小學並不會因為得到優惠和自由度而變成特權學校。它們為了「生存」下去，唯一的方法就是要好好地利用所得的優惠和自由度，達至優質教育。

五・結語

筆者認為精英人才是香港的重要資源，因此，香港一定要發展一個優質私立體系去培訓一群精英，而這些精英必須是「績效精英」(meritocracy)。政府應該嘗試推行「新直資計劃」，讓辦學團體成立「一條龍」直資中小學，讓它們運作。事實上，『一條龍』直資中小學」還未存在，誰也無法知道它們帶給香港教育的影響是正面的，還是負面的。只有當它們運作時，支持或反對的人士才可以看到它們的成效，才可以檢討它們能否真正到培育精英人才，滿足社會需要。

其實，世界上沒有一個教育制度可以達至絕對的「教育機會均等」，每個國家的政府在製定某項教育政策或實施某種教育改革時，只可以盡量把不均等的情況減少。政府所推行的「新直資計劃」，給予更多教育資源給『一條龍』直資中小學」。

這也許是一項不均等的資源分配，不完全符合「教育機會均等」的理念。不過，政府已經透過監管的制度來避免直資中小學變成特權學校，如果有適當的補助及助學金，更能夠進一步把「教育機會不均等」的情況減輕。

香港特別行政長官董建華曾經在浸會大學的一次公開談話中，就<<第三號報告書>>教育部分的內容發表意

見。他表示香港在廿一世紀將會接受嚴峻的考驗和挑戰，為了能夠應付這些考驗和挑戰，就得把教育辦好，「找出一條最好的路」，培育人才，建設香港。此外，他又表示教育經費佔了整個財政預算最大的部分，接近百分之二十，可見政府很重視人才的培育。(見<<大公報>>，1999年11月12日)。假如政府只著重教育機會的均等，漠視精英人才的學習需求，對他們來說就是不公平。政府如果不設法去發掘及培養精英人才，配合未來的發展，整個社會的競爭力就無法提升。香港沒有了足夠的競爭力，就會停滯不前，給鄰近城市和國家比下去，其前景會變得很暗淡。

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(Received: 1.11.00, accepted: 24.12.00, revised: 24.3.01)

走向新世紀的新一代的道德風貌
——中國沿海開放地區中小學生品德狀況的調查分析

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根據1997-1999年對廣東、福建、浙江三省沿海地區中小學生(9-15歲)品德狀況及其時代背景的實際調查，從定性和定量、理論和實際、一般和重點的結合上分析了當前該地區中小學生品德的基本狀況，論述了特區中小學生傳統美德與現代意識發展的狀況，概括出當前本地區中小學生品德發展的基本特點——積極向上的進步性、超越年齡的"早熟"、注重物質的"務實"，以及品德發展的"個性化"。最後，提出了改進中小學生品德教育的對策性建議。

The Moral Values of a New Generation -- An Investigation of the Moral Landscape of Students in the PRC's Coastal Regions

This paper presents the results of a survey of moral values of primary and middle school students (ages 9-15) in the coastal areas of Guangdong, Fujian and Zhejang between 1997 and 1999. The survey investigates the background of the students and their beliefs in traditional virtues and moral values. The results were analyzed using a combination of both quantitative and qualitative methods. They show that despite the varied backgrounds of the student population, there is a uniformity in their moral values which are typically progressive, precocious, materialistic, and strongly individualistic. Based on these findings, the author makes the following suggestions. First, we should determine the major factors influencing students' moral values. Second, we should be aware of the morally inappropriate aspects of students' attitudes. Third, we should guide students to understand the moral rules of a market economy. Finally, schools and teachers should pay attention to providing a moral compass for students and stress the importance of family education.

一・前言

1. 研究設計

我們把品德界定為個體按照一定社會的道德、政治、思想、法紀等社會意識和行為準則所表現出來的穩定特徵和傾向[1]，它具有鮮明的社會性和時代性。我們檢索了國內外10多種品德評價和德育評價的指標體系，把原國家教委1993年頒發的《小學德育綱要》、1995年頒發的《中學德育大綱》及《小學生日常行為規範》、《中學生日常行為規範》做為制定品德評價指標體系的主要依據，並做了一定的調整組合，將熱愛祖國、遵守公德、遵紀守法、團結友愛、勤勞儉樸、孝敬父母、文明生活八種因素做為評價中小學生品德狀況的一級指標，並在每個一級指標下制訂了四個二級指標做為編制問卷的依據。另外，我們根據沿海開放地區受到外來思潮衝擊大，與市場經濟相適應的新思想傳播快的情況，將中小學生品德中那些"現代性"鮮明的成份作為"現代意識"，同時將那些在我國歷史上流傳下來的、早已深入人心的優良道德作為"傳統美德"與現代意識相對應，作為考察中小學生品德的兩個參考指標，各設六個二級指標。

中小學生品德的八個一級指標每個均設四個二級指標，每個二級指標對應一道題目，計32個題目，答案從低到高以1、2、3計分，理論上最高得分96。傳統美德和現代意識兩個參考指標各設六個二級指標，計12個

* 本文是全國教育科學"九.五"課題《沿海開放地區中小學生品德狀況與家庭德育狀況的調查研究》的研究成果之一，課題主持人為廣州大學教育研究所駱風副教授，參加課題研究的主要有浙江師大吳立德、廣州師院戴健林、廣州市現代教育科學研究中心李季和汪土元、華南師大王本陸和麥志強、廈門市教委馮龍士。
本課題得到廣州市教育基金、廣州師院科研經費以及廈門市和瑞安市有關部門的資助！

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題目，答案同樣從低到高以1、2、3計分，理論上最高得分36。考慮到小學生、初中生身心發展和道德發展的複雜性和差異性，我們制定的小學生品德評價標準與中學生品德評價標準的要求略有差別，所出的兩套問卷的個別題目亦略有不同。

由於這兩套問卷屬於多重記分的測試，所以我們對這兩套自行設計的問卷採用信度係數α來測定問卷的內部一致性，經計算中小學生品德問卷的信度係數α等於0.87表明這兩套問卷具有良好的信度。此外，我們在正式調查結束後一個月的時候，分別到廈門大同中學、廣州小北路小學隨機抽取一個班重新測試，經計算，該問卷的重測信度係數γ等於0.91，表明測試的效果良好。

2. 研究方法

為了確保調查材料的真實可靠，我們運用了目前美國教育研究中頗為盛行的三角互證法[2]，以對中小學生的問卷調查為主，並附以同部分學生及其班主任、家長的個別交談、小範圍座談，還收集了一定數量的學生品德鑒定、班級日誌、表揚批評記錄和班主任、分管德育的教導主任、少先隊大隊輔導員、團委書記等寫的工作總結；為了提高研究的深度和廣度，我們綜合運用了哲學、社會學、倫理學、心理學、教育學和測量學、統計學的理論和方法，以對自己的第一手調查材料的分析為主，同時參考他人研究成果進行對比分析。

3. 研究進程

本課題從1997年4月開始，1997年冬季和1998年春季進行了兩次小範圍的調查及分析。1998年5月－6月作了大樣本調查，調查學校分佈在經濟、文化發展水平有一定差異的廣州、深圳、中山、湛江、福州、廈門、寧波、台州、瑞安等12個沿海城鎮，選擇重點與非重點、市中心與市邊緣大體相當的中小學24所，對61個班的學生作了問卷調查，收到問卷2866份。剔除說謊和漏答較多的問卷後，本調查實際獲得有效問卷2370，答卷者為男生的1218人、女生的1042人，未填性別者110份；答卷者中有小學4年級450人、5年級398人、6年級389人，初中1年級451人、2年級461人、3年級221人。1999年8-10月運用SPSS for windows 6.0軟體進行處理，得出平均數、百分比、方差等資料。在此前後，通過有教育科研人員、中小學教師參加的中型會議，從定性和定量的結合上、理論和實際的結合上，深入分析本地區中小學生品德的特點及其根源，反復論證改進教育對策的建議。

二．中小學生品德概貌的材料分析

調查表明，本地區大多數中小學生品德面貌良好，下面從八個方面提供大樣本調查的結果：

1. 熱愛祖國

從調查來看，本地區中小學生有一定的愛國意識，如小學生回答"您是否想到要為祖國努力學習?"時，表示總是想到的佔40.4 %，有時想到的佔56.1 %，而沒有想到的只有3.5 %，中學生回答"聽到國歌時，你是否想到建設祖國的重任？"時，選擇經常想到的佔 46.5%，有時想到的佔 46.7%，選擇沒有想到的有6.5 %；許多中小學生關心本地區的經濟建設，決心長大以後為家鄉更美好貢獻力量，在回答"你瞭解家鄉建設的新情況嗎？"時，44.4%的小學生表示知道，46.0%的小學生表示知道一些，只有9.6%的小學生說自己不知道。

2. 遵守公德

從調查得知，本地區中小學生具有較高的公德意識，在八項一級指標的平均得分中最高，多數學生能夠講文明、講禮貌，如"在街上遇到以往教過自己的老師，你會怎麼辦？"小學生表示主動問候的佔92.6%，他叫我，我才理他的佔4.5%，設法回避的佔2.9%；同樣題目，中學生回答主動問候的佔92.7%，他叫我，我才理他的佔4.2%，設法回避的佔3.0%；"下雨時其他同學要借你的雨傘，你會怎麼辦？"小學生表示借給的佔74.2%，表示自己不用時才借給的佔23.8%，表示不借的佔1.9%；而中學生在回答同樣問題時表示借給的佔53.3%，表示自己不用時才借給別人的佔43.3%，表示不借的佔3.2%。

3. 遵紀守法

從調查的結果來看，學生在此方面得分較高。"你懂得《小學生日常行?規範》的要求嗎？"結果小學生回答懂得的佔53.5%，回答懂得一些的佔45.0%，回答不懂的佔1.5%；詢問中學生"你懂得《中學生日常行?規範》的要求嗎？"結果表示懂得的佔59.9%，懂得一些的佔38.6%，不懂的佔1.4%。我們出了一道情景題："在十字路口碰上紅燈，而此時並沒有車輛通過，你會怎麼辦？"結果回答待綠燈亮時再過的小學生有82.6%，

中學生有65.9%，回答有人通過就跟著走的小學生佔16%、中學生佔29.3%，回答沒有警察管就走的小學生佔1.4%、中學生佔4.8%。

4. 團結友愛

據調查，本地區大多數中小學生喜歡學校的集體活動，同學之間交往較多，如小學生回答“學習時有同學向你借文具或書本，你的心情通常是？”表示不樂於借的佔2.2%，表示沒有特別感覺的佔29.0%，表示樂於借出的佔68.8%；對於“如果班幹部請你星期天到校和他一起辦板報，你會怎?辦?”結果小學生回答不樂意的佔5.1%，回答一般的佔29.1%，回答很樂意的佔65.8%；小學生在回答“節假日你會找居住地的同齡朋友一起玩嗎？”時表示不找的佔11%，表示有時找的佔67.8%，表示經常找的佔21.2%；而中學生在回答“你與居住地的同齡人交往情況如何?”時表示交往極少的佔13.9%，表示有一些交往的佔51.4%，表示交往較多的佔34.7%。

5. 勤奮學習

學習是學生的在校生活的主要內容，但從調查結果來看存在較多問題，是八項一級指標中平均得分最低的專案。我們描繪了課堂上的幾種情況請學生選擇，結果選“喜歡聽的課才用心聽”的小學生佔15.6%、中學生佔26.3%，“偶爾說話、做小動作”的小學生佔56.2%、中學生佔51.6%，“總是認真聽講”的小學生佔28.3%、中學生佔22.1%；“在你自由支配的時間裏，看書、學習、做作業的比例大約是？”，結果選擇1/4或更少的小學生佔9.4%、中學生佔12.2%，選擇1/3左右的小學生佔59.9%、中學生佔61.1%，選擇1/2或更多的小學生的佔30.5%、中學生佔26.7%；我們還尋問了小學生“對於本年級的學習尖子，你的態度是？”結果表示不在乎的佔3.2%，表示羨慕他的佔11.6%，表示爭取趕上他的佔85.2%。

6. 勤勞儉樸

從調查看學生在此專案上的得分也比較高，如在回答“對班裏的清潔衛生等勞動，你會怎?做？”時，表示不想幹的小學生佔2.4%、中學生佔4.4%，表示別人怎樣幹自己也怎樣幹的小學生佔25.2%、中學生佔31.1%，表示積極幹的小學生佔72.6%、中學生佔64.3%。我們詢問中學生“節假日你能在家裏做些簡單的飯菜嗎？”結果表示不能的佔12.5%，表示有時能的佔42.5%，表示能夠的佔44.0%；“有的同學經常買來卡片、食物給其他同學，對此你有何看法？”表示有錢就要買東西的小學生佔1.5%、中學生佔3.0%，表示無所謂的小學生佔18.9%、中學生佔42.3%，認?這樣不好的小學生79.6佔%、中學生佔54.7%。

7. 孝敬父母

從調查來看，本地區中小學生在此方面的得分不高。“如果遇到不順心的事，你能主動告訴家長嗎？”表示能夠的小學生佔33.2%、中學生佔28.0%，表示有時能有時不能的小學生佔56.2%、中學生佔48.0%，表示不能的小學生佔10.7%、中學生佔24.0%，我們瞭解小學生“你能準確地說出媽媽的生日嗎？”結果回答能夠的佔59.0%、不敢肯定的佔27.6%，不能的佔13.3%；但也有得分較高的，如回答“父母年老體弱時，你願意照料他們嗎？”時，表示願意的小學生佔91.5%、中學生佔93.3%，表示只有他們困難時才給予照料的小學生佔5.2%、中學生佔3.6%，表示不知道（其中有些實際是不願意）的小學生佔3.3%、中學生佔3.1%。

8. 文明生活

從調查結果來看，學生在此方面的表現一般。對於“節假日期間，你夜晚睡覺的時間是：”表示同平時一樣的小學生有40.9%、中學生有35.4%，表示比平時晚1—2個小時的小學生佔48.1%、中學生佔53.7%，還有的沒有規律，常常熬到深夜，這部分小學生佔11.0%、中學生佔12.9%；“有的同學向你展示名牌服裝，你會怎?辦？”表示不放在心上的小學生佔88.7%、中學生佔用83.8%，表示自己也想要的小學生佔8.6%、中學生佔4.3%，表示要求家長買的小學生佔2.6%、中學生佔1.8%；“看到有的同學吸煙喝酒、用高檔化妝品、戴金銀手飾，你覺得：”結果認為“這樣不美”的小學生佔84.9%、中學生佔72.6%，表示“無所謂”的小學生佔14.3%、中學生佔26.4%，認?“這樣很美”的小學生佔0.7%、中學生佔1%。

三．中小學生傳統美德與現代意識的材料分析[3]

我們在四個經濟特區進行了傳統美德與現代意識的調查研究，調查材料取自廈門的小學和中學各2所、深圳的中學1所、珠海的小學和中學各1所、汕頭的小學和中學各1所，共有9所學校23個班級的學生有效問卷774份。

表1小學生傳統美德的頻數

（N = 372）

題號	題　目	答　人數所佔百分比	答　人數所佔百分比	答　人數所佔百分比	未填
1	你對“為中華之崛起而學習”這句話的評價是：	沒有意思，佔18.6%	無所謂，佔9.8%	應當這樣，佔70.6%	1.2%
2	當別人需要你幫助的時候，你會怎麼作？	不予幫助，15.1%	想幫助又怕麻煩，佔16%	盡力幫助，佔67.2%	1.7%
3	知道災區群眾生活困難，你願意捐款支援他們嗎?	不願意，佔12.6%	聽家長的意見，佔24.6%	願意幫助，佔53.4%	9.4%
4	現在不少人認為“雷鋒精神已經過時”，你的看法呢?	是的，佔3.6%	沒有想過，佔16.2%	不同意此觀點，佔72.6%	7.6%
5	如果春節收到親友送來的數百元壓歲錢，你會怎麼辦？	買東西，佔6.7%	請家長決定，佔22.6%	存入銀行，佔70.7%	0
6	你平時每星期(寒暑假例外)做拖地、擦桌子、洗碗等家務的次數？	沒有，佔12.5%	1-3次，佔50.1%	幾乎每天都做，佔36.6%	0.8%

表2中學生傳統美德的頻數

（N = 402）

題號	題　目	答　人數所佔百分比	答　人數所佔百分比	答　人數所佔百分比	未填
1	你對“天下興亡，匹夫有責”這句話的評價是：	沒有意思，佔13.4%	無所謂，佔11.8%	應當這樣，佔72.6%	2.2%
2	看到陌生的老人摔倒在街頭，你會怎麼辦？	不予幫助，10.4%	既想幫助用怕麻煩，21.4%	盡力幫助，68.2%	0
3	長大後你願意到條件艱苦的地方工作和生活嗎？	不願意，佔18.5%	聽家長的意見，佔22.6%	願意，佔56.2%	2.7%
4	現在不少人認為“雷鋒精神已經過時”，你的看法呢?	是的，佔5.2%	沒有想過，佔15.2%	不同意此觀點，佔71.6%	8%
5	如果春節收到親友送來的數百元壓歲錢，你會怎麼辦？	買東西，佔8.8%	請家長決定，佔20.3%	存入銀行，佔68.5%	2.4%
6	你平時每星期(寒暑假例外)做拖地、擦桌子、洗碗等家務的次數？	沒有，佔10.2%	1-3次，佔53.1%	幾乎每天都做，佔35.6%	1.1%

調查表明，當前特區大多數中小學生熱愛祖國，基本上保持了中華民族的優良道德，如70%以上的學生贊同"為中華之崛起而學習"、"天下興亡，匹夫有責"的名言，不同意"雷鋒精神已經過時"的觀點，表明特區大多數中小學生並沒有"離經叛道"；65-70%的學生表示在別人需要時樂於幫助，但是也有30%左右的學生表示不予幫助，其中15%以上的孩子是由於擔心"自找麻煩"而放棄助人行為的；問題較為突出的是，只有53%左右的小學生明確表示"知道災區群眾生活困難，願意捐款支援他們"和56%左右的中學生明確表示"長大後願意倒條件艱苦的地方工作和生活"另有40%以上的學生態度不明確。此外，學生做家務的情況也比較差，10-12%的孩子什麼也不做，只有35%左右的孩子經常做。

（二）現代意識

表3小學生現代意識的頻數 （N = 372）

題號	題目	答人數所佔百分比	答人數所佔百分比	答人數所佔百分比	未填
1	想一想你能記住多少個國家的首都名稱？	不足5個，佔2.7%	5-15個，佔53.2%	15個以上，44.5%	0
2	你在學習等活動中有無"努力爭取最好成績"的想法？	沒有，佔5.6%	有時有，佔29.2%	經常有，佔62.5%	2.7%
3	如果排隊的時候別人踩了你的腳，你會有何反應？	我也踩他或者罵他，佔3.6%	心裏不快、但不報復，佔23.1%	相信他不是故意的，佔59.7%	3.8%
4	當教師向您講解法律知識時，你會有何反應？	不想聽，佔11.6%	無所謂，19.8%	想聽，佔68.6%	0
5	讓你為同學代買文具，你會多到幾家商店比較質量和價格後再買嗎？	不會，佔21.6%	有時會，佔33.2%	會的，佔45.2%	0
6	約定到朋友家玩的時，你總是：	想去就去，佔6.8%	經常遲到，佔4.6%	按預定時間到，佔86.2%	2.4%

表4中學生現代意識的頻數 （N = 402）

題號	題目	答人數所佔百分比	答人數所佔百分比	答人數所佔百分比	未填
1	想一想你能記住多少個國家的首都名稱？	1-10個，佔28.2%	10-20個，佔45.5%	20個以上佔26.3%	0
2	你在學習等活動中有無"努力爭取最好成績"的想法？	沒有，佔3.2%	有時有，佔30.2%	經常有，佔66.6%	0
3	如果排隊的時候別人踩了你的腳，你會有何反應？	我也踩他或者罵他，佔4.6%	心裏不快、但不報復，佔24.9%	相信他不是故意的，佔66.5%	4%
4	怎樣評價"依法治國"、"法律面前人人平等"的意義？	不太清楚，佔6.1%	有的對、有的不對，佔21.6%	完全正確，佔72.1%	0.2
5	讓你為同學代買文具，你會多到幾家商店比較質量和價格後再買嗎？	不會，佔18.6%	有時會，佔38.2%	會的，佔43.2%	0
6	你關心電腦升級、火車提速、生物工程、氣象衛星等科技進步嗎？	不關心佔4.2%	有點關心，佔31.2%	非常關心，佔64.6%	0

從調查來看，特區兒童少年視野開闊、思想活躍，改革開放初期提出的許多新觀念開始在他們身上體現，多數特區學生有一定的開放意識、法制意識、科技意識，可以說他們初步具備了“現代人”的心理一行為特徵[4]。如特區60%以上的學生自信自強，經常用“努力爭取最好成績”的話語激勵自己；大多數學生寬宏大量、與人為善，遇到別人踩自己的腳時會從好的方面解釋，不去計較。部分學生初步摸索出貨幣一商品交換的訣竅，懂得“貨比三家見高低”。但是我們也應看到，特區只有44.5%的小學生能夠記住15個以上的國家首都名稱，45.5%的中學生能夠記住10-20個國家首都名稱，表明特區孩子對於世界的瞭解還不夠；此外，他們掌握法律知識的情況也不夠理想。

四・中小學生品德的時代特徵與形成背景的分析

在課題調查過程中，我們深深地感到東南沿海地區中小學生與內地中小學生、本地區這一代中小學生與八十年代甚至九十年代初的中小學生在品德方向、內容、水平上存在著一定的差異。下面，我們論證當前沿海開放地區中小學生思想品德的時代特徵的及其形成的社會背景：

1. 當前中小學生的思想品德狀況呈現出積極向上的強勁勢頭，先進性十分明顯。

當前本地區中小學生關心祖國建設、向往美好未來、努力進取，具有的良好的精神風貌。參與調查的多數中小學教師都認為，前些年由於社會上不正之風嚴重，中小學生思想混亂的人多，逃學曠課的多，傳看黃色書刊的多，頂撞老師的多，最近兩三年上述現象大?減少，代之以遵紀守法、文明禮貌等積極行為，學生品德進步的趨勢相當明顯。當前本地區中小學生還形成了許多與祖國改革開放發展趨勢、世界科技發展潮流相一致的先進思想道德，如相當多的中小學生懂得依法治國的重要性，“在教師講解法律知識時，你會有何反應？”84.9%的小學生表示“想聽”；在評價“依法治國”、“法律面前人人平等”的觀點時，66.3%的中學生表示“完全正確”。出現上述情況，同以下社會背景有著密切的關係：

第一，改革開放以來本地區經濟發展的形勢喜人。如浙江1978年到1998年國內生產總值從124億元增加到5050億元，平均每年增加13.4%，比同期全國平均增長率高出3.7個百分點，比該省1953-1978年的平均增長率高出7.7個百分點。深圳、珠海、汕頭三個特區發展更快，“八五”期間國內生產總值年均增加率分別為30.4%、32.0%、21.4%。最近兩年雖然亞洲金融危機席捲全球，但我國最大限度地避免了世界經濟下滑的影響，沿海開放地區經濟依然繼續高速發展，廣東省東莞市1998年前10個月的國內生產總值的增長速度高達19.0%。經濟的發展帶動了其他各項事業的發展，對年輕一代的品德進步也產生了積極影響。

第二，九十年代中期以來本地區加強了精神文明的建設。不可否認，改革開放以來本地區確實存在著物質文明建設和精神文明建設一手硬、一手軟的現象。90年代中期以來本地區的精神文明建設成績卓著，如廣州市採取打擊、防範、教育、管理、建設“五管齊下”的方針使治安形勢明顯好轉，廈門市深入開展尊老敬老的教育，“白髮人”乘車、購物優先尉然成風，貫徹《中共中央關於加強社會主義精神文明建設若干重要問題的決議》初建成效，本地區社會面貌的煥然一新，中小學生品德進步的社會環境大為改善。

第三，本地區學校德育工作的改進喜結碩果。近年來本地區教育行政部門和多數學校不斷加強和改善思想政治工作，探索出許多行之有效的措施，如廣州市荔灣區、汕頭市龍湖區教育局把學校的思想教育工作延伸到家庭和街道，形成三結合的教育機制，有力地改善了學生進步的小環境，1994年以來這兩個區的中小學生無一人因違法亂紀被公安部門收審。近年來學生中正氣上升，邪氣下降，前些年一度橫行的打架鬥毆、辱罵教師、毀壞公物等嚴重違紀現象基本不見了。

2. 當前中小學生的道德認識水平和道德踐行能力普遍提高，呈現出“早熟”的特徵。

改革開放以來，本地區中小學生道德認識水平不斷提高，判明是非能力比過去的中小學生明顯增強，他們對某些問題的認識的正確率比家長還高，如1998年春季我們用同樣題目“在十字路口碰上紅燈，你會怎麼做？”請孩子們和家長回答時，選擇“待綠燈亮時再過”的孩子比家長高出21個百分點，而選擇“沒有警察管就過”的家長卻超過了孩子；在有關環境保護的調查中也顯示出孩子們的態度較為積極。當前本地區中小學生積極參與班級、學校和社區精神文明建設，具有較強的道德踐行能力。據廣州、廈門、瑞安等地的許多班主任介紹，

現在中小學生自我教育能力較高，不少學生幹部工作能力很強，班主任在維護課堂紀律、出壁報、組織課外活動等方面不象過去那樣辛苦了，學生能夠自己管理自己，而且不少活動是孩子們自己策劃和組織的，效果很好。調查表明，出現這種情況的主要原因是：

第一，近年來本地區文化建設迅速發展。改革開放以來，尤其是90年代中期以來本地區的文化事業得到了較大的發展，如福州市1997年文化事業投資額比1995年增加了89%，藝術表演團體達到18個、公共圖書館15個、博物館紀念館16個、新華書店經營網點10個、二級批發書店36家、零售出租書店1100家，極大地方便了市民和中小學生閱讀和欣賞文化產品的需要。與此同時，最近兩年本地區居民家庭的個人電腦大大增加，到1999年底，廣州、福州、廈門等城市60%的中學生家庭、40%的小學生家庭和本地區鄉鎮30%的中學生家庭配置了電腦，每到暑期買光碟、玩電腦成為這些學生最開心的事情。發達的大眾傳媒使孩子們“秀才不出門，能知天下事”，大量的資訊反復刺激他們，“逼迫”他們辨別、選擇、吸收，促進了道德視野的擴大和道德認識的提升。

第二，近年來本地區家庭生活條件的改善。改革開放以來，本地區民眾的家庭生活條件大為改觀，據統計1978-1998年浙江城鎮居民人均可支配收入由332元增加到7820元，農村居民人均純收入由165元增加到3800元，扣除價格上漲因素，平均每年實際增長率分別為7.3%和9.1%，分別比1958-1978年間的實際增長率高出5.3和6.1個百分點；1978-1997年廣東城鎮居民人均可支配收入由412元增加到8562元，農村居民人均純收入由193元增加到3468元，扣除價格上漲因素，平均每年實際增長率分別為7.3%和8.0%，現在，本地區絕大多數家庭已經進入小康生活水平，完全可以滿足孩子的生活和受教育的需要。優越的生活條件為孩子們的身心發展提供了豐富的物資基礎，使他們不僅在身高、體重等生理方面顯示出“早熟”，而且在知識水平、智慧程度和品德修養、人格完善等心理—社會方面也顯示出“早熟”，有利於道德水平的提高。

3. 當前中小學生關心經濟發展、注重物質利益，呈現出“務實”的特徵。

當前本地區中小學生考慮問題時受政治信仰、道德觀念的影響較小，而受經濟發展、物質利益的影響較大。在我們幾次與初中學生座談時，許多學生對於諸如“四項基本原則”、“階級鬥爭”之類的政治常識表示“沒興趣”或“不理解”，而對於本地區經濟建設的新成就相當熟悉，毫不掩飾自己“發財致富”的願望。他們重視物質利益和物質享受，伴隨市場經濟而來的某些消極思想也在他們身上顯現，相當多的孩子的生活理想是“吃的香辣、穿的瀟灑、玩的痛快”，不顧家庭實際追求高檔和名牌；少數學生用金錢(物品)進行庸俗的交換，讓同學替自己打掃衛生、抄寫作業，讓同學替自己當幹部、拿獎狀投票；個別學生不惜採取搶劫、勒索、敲詐等違法手段來滿足惡性膨脹了的物欲，目前中小學生1/3以上的違紀違法行為是由於過分追求物質享受引起的。調查表明，出現上述情況的主要原因是：

第一，近年來本地區的思想解放和市場經濟的迅速發展。東南沿海地區是我國最早實行改革開放的地區，鄧小平理論在這一帶得到貫徹，人們較早摒棄左傾思想，大力發展生產力。尤其最近一次思想解放運動，帶來了所有制結構的重大變革，確立了社會主義市場經濟體制。如1992－1997年，浙江省國有經濟由26.4%下降到11.7%，城鄉集體經濟由61.3%下降到41.2%，而非公有制經濟由12.3%上升到47.1%，溫州在保持國有經濟骨幹地位的同時，個體私營經濟迅速發展，股份合作制經濟成為主體，深圳、珠海等特區在創立和建設的過程中堅持解放思想、事實求是、大膽創新的原則，許多新的思想觀念和政策措施在這裏產生。中小學生極少保守思想，他們極易從火熱的現實生活中汲取精神營養，形成與時代相適應的先進思想。

第二，本地區社會進步中的失誤及其影響。由於改革開放是一種前無古人偉大創舉，新體制、新觀念、新道德的建立需要一個過程，在這個過程中出現一些問題在所難免，如80年代後期溫州的假冒偽劣產品一度泛濫成災，封建迷信、為死人造墳盛行一時。90年代中期以來本地區的精神文明建設取得了重大成就，但社會生活中個人主義、拜金主義依然橫行。當前社會上對中小學生的各種誘惑大大增加，黃色淫穢書刊、錄影、光碟隨處可見。目前部分中小學生學習不努力就是由於受媒體中投機取巧思想的影響，自以為將來能夠靠運氣發財。

第三，教育內容陳舊、教育改革滯後。由於傳統觀念作怪和長期計劃經濟的影響，我們成年人用錢卻羞于講錢，在教育（尤其學校教育）中只講勤儉節約、拾金不昧，不講生財有道、合理消費，這樣勢必使許多孩子面對花花綠綠的商品世界不知所措、抑制不住物質欲望。再如，當前本地區許多中小學尚未從應試教育的枷鎖下解脫出來，學生的學業負擔沈重，而多數學生升入高一級學校無望，在社會上知識貧乏的人投機發財、享樂人生的資訊不斷傳來，他們不知道學習有何用處，自然沒有刻苦學習的動力。

4. 當前中小學生思想品德發展的多樣性和不平衡性鮮明，中小學生的品德"個性化"的程度提高。

本地區中小學生非常自信，思想比較獨立，互相之間不存芥蒂，班會上常常開展熱烈的爭論，即使對教師的觀點也會提出不同意見。現在中小學生道德觀念和道德行為出現了較強的多樣化的傾向，他們的品德表現各具特色，很難簡單地把學生分成上、中、下或者優、良、中、差幾種類型。就中小學生個體品德發展而言，當前相當多的中小學生存在著較為嚴重不平衡。一從中小學生品德表現的環境來看，大多數孩子們在學校的表現較好，在社會上的表現次之，在家庭中的表現較差。據班主任和家長們的估計，1/2以上的孩子或多或少存在這種傾向。二從中小學生品德發展的內容來看，本地區多數中小學生在遵守公德、遵紀守法等方面做得較好，而在勤奮學習、熱愛祖國等方面做得不好，此外現在的學生國家意識、民族觀念也比較淡漠；三從中小學生品德構成的要素來看，知行脫節比較普遍，多數中小學生明白事理，道德認識水平相當高，但在行為中卻是另外一個樣子。出現這種情況的主要原因是：

第一，多元文化的影響。如廣東近年來精神文明建設成績要然[5]，《新三字經》、《社會公德四字歌》、《英雄無悔》等一批優秀作品促進了人們的思想道德進步，特別是《新三字經》對中小學生的影響是空前的，我們在廣州、中山、汕頭的四間小學、三間中學瞭解到，約70%的學生能夠背誦《新三字經》，近40%的學生學習《新三字經》後思想品德有進步。但是，外來文化對本地區的影響也很強，在珠江三角洲地區通過走私而來報刊、光碟肆意橫行，不乏狂妄自大、無恥貪婪、黃色肉麻、神鬼迷信的消極內容。本地區有海外關係的家庭較多，近年來少數中學生也加入到留洋的行列之中，這樣"來來去去"，把不少國外的消極思想文化"傳遞"給了本地區的中小學生。其結果必然使學生思想道德更加活躍，使他們品德的多樣性與不平衡性加劇。

第二，本地區教師和家長對孩子的態度過於"寬鬆"。在我國成人用灌輸和壓服的方式對待孩子由來已久，本地區家長和教師過去對於孩子的"管教"也相當嚴格。但是，近年來隨著經濟文化的發展，民主、自由、平等的思想為各界人士所接受，本地區教師和家長的兒童觀、人才觀與師生觀、親子觀有一定的變化，許多教師和家長關心孩子（中小學生）、培養孩子，但不強求孩子、打罵孩子，我們在1998年5—6月對家長的大樣本問卷調查（有效問卷2138份）中，對"你是否同意'既要嚴格要求，又要尊重愛護孩子'的觀點"，家長中表示非常同意的佔63.0%、基本同意的佔29.7%，表示一般的佔4.3%，不太同意的佔2.0%，很不同意的佔1.0%。這樣，就給了中小學生較多的選擇與作主的機會，有利於他們"個性化"的品德發展。

五・改進中小學生品德教育的若干建議

中小學生的道德面貌既是社會文明的反映，又預示著社會文明的前景，因而歷來受到各界的關注，長期成?社會科學研究的重點之一。通過以上對於調查材料的分析，我們對於當前沿海開放地區中小學生的品德狀況及其社會背景有了一定的認識。"認識問題的最終目的在於解決問題"，最後我們提出幾點改進中小學生品德教育的對策建議（限於篇幅，不作論述）：

第一，應當充分肯定當前中小學生品德發展的進步主流。

第二，應當看到和幫助那些存在嚴重品德問題的學生。

第三，必須特別關注中小學生的物質生活領域。

第四，學校必須積極參加社區精神文明建設活動。

第五，學校必須加強和改進家庭教育指導工作。

註

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2. 威廉· 維爾斯曼著、袁振國主譯（1997）。《教育研究方法導論》。教育科學出版社，第316-318頁。

3. 駱風。＜傳統美德與現代意識並進—廣東沿海地區中小學生思想品德的調查和預測＞。載於《當代青年研究》，第1期。

4. 如美國著名社會學家英克爾思在《人的現代化》中提出了現代人的14條心理—行為特徵，四川人民出版社1985年版，第3-4頁；我國著名教育學家成有信在《現代教育引論》中提出了現代人的四個基本特徵，河南教育出版社1992年版，第23頁；另一位著名教育學家崔相錄在《東方教育的崛起》中概括許多學者的觀點，提出了未來人才的8項基本要求，河南教育出版社1993年版，第709頁。

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（Received:26 .4.00，accepted:11.7.00，revised:30. 8.00）

全語文寫作教學的實踐與推廣

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寫作教學一直是語文老師感到頭疼的事情。許多小學生一聽到要作文，便流露厭煩的神色，覺得寫作是一件苦差。學生對寫作沒有興趣，只是敷衍成篇，交差了事。全班的作文往往千篇一律，全無新意，教師也以改作文為痛苦的事。為了要改變這種情況，香港有些小學進行了寫作教學的改革。一九九四年，開始在一所小學推行寫作教學的新嘗試，名為「全語文寫作教學」；一年後，增至三所小學。一九九七年，又增加到九所小學。全語文寫作教學參考自全語文取向(Whole Language Approach)的精神，是以學生為中心的一種教學法，它的信念是：文字是用來溝通的，因此要注意教材的實用性，同時也注重聽、說、讀和寫的配合。本文的目的是：介紹全語文寫作教學的理念和推行的過程，探討這個寫作計畫對香港的學校、教師、學生和寫作課程的影響。

The Implementation and Extension of Whole Language Writing Project

The teaching of writing is always a headache to Chinese language teachers. Many students in primary schools show no interest to composition lesson and they just finish writing casually. Language teachers also feel that it is very dull to correct students' composition as they are all the same. In 1994 , a primary school in Hong Kong conducted a reform of teaching of Chinese writing. The school adopted a new writing project named as "Whole Language Writing Project". In 1997, there were 9 schools joined this project. "Whole Language Writing Project" is student-based. It emphasizes on the practical use of writing and the combination of writing, reading, speaking and listening. This paper tries to introduce the theory and account for the implementation of this writing project. The influence of the project on students, teachers, schools and the curriculum of writing are also included.

一・引言

寫作教學一直是語文老師感到頭疼的事情。許多小學生一聽到要作文，便流露厭煩的神色，覺得寫作是一件苦差。學生對寫作沒有興趣，只是敷衍成篇，交差了事。全班的作文往往千篇一律，全無新意，教師也以改作文為痛苦的事。不知熬了多少個晚上精批細改，學生只看一下分數便把老師改好的作文擱置一旁。作文變成了老師和學生雙方都吃力而不討好的活動。

二・寫作教學改革的源起及發展

許多教育工作者都想改變寫作教學的困境。一九九四年，香港大學教育學院課程學系謝錫金教授向香港一所小學校長介紹一個英國「國家寫作計畫」(National Writing Project)的內容，該校一浸信會沙田第一城呂明才小學下午校的鄧薇先校長很感興趣，於是在一九九五年在全校推行，名為「全語文寫作教學計畫」，第一期試驗滿意，香港電視星期日檔案節目派員到校拍攝教學情況，於是又引起其他學校的興趣。一九九五年七月該校舉行一個鐵路沿線的發佈會，有二百多名參加者。一九九六年有另外兩所學校加入此項寫作計畫。一九九七年，這計畫獲語文基金贊助，有九所小學參加。二000年，該計畫獲賽馬會地區專業教師交流計畫資助，舉行五次的交流會。參加的人數平均每次約一百人。筆者一直擔任這個計畫的研究員，負責教師培訓、設計教材、推廣及研究工作。

三・理論根據

1. 國家寫作計劃(National Writing Project 簡稱 NWP)

在1985-88年間，英國的SCDC(School Curriculum Development Committee)推行National

Writing Project，有24個當地團體和約2000名老師參加這個計劃。由於效果理想，當局以1988-89為實施年(implementation year)，鼓勵其他老師加入。

為甚麼有這樣的一個寫作計劃呢？這也是由於對英語寫作教學並不滿意，一直以來，英文教學都著重文法或串字，學生以為寫作的目的是為了填表，或者將來長大才有用。過去的教學法都只注重寫作的外表而不是內容，著重寫的準確性而不是文章的原意，NWP此計劃的目的就是盡量讓學生表達自己，鼓勵學生創意和發展意念。摩根(Felicity Morgan 1989)在一篇名叫寫作概念(Writing in Perspective)的文章這樣報道：

國家寫作計劃的目的是鼓勵創意和發展意念，而不只是集中在表達和串字方面。這不是說，後二者並不重要。

實踐階段的總監席勒(Jeremy Jaffer)表示這個計劃不但要喚醒一股熱情，而且還引起認真思考的態度。當然，錯字一定要改正，而清楚和準確的文法也是重要的。但若只用這些標準來評定寫作就如讓寫作穿了一件緊身衣，(筆者按：即既定模式)，評估一定要現實的，教師真正需要看看他們學生的作品究竟是怎樣的[1]。

這個計劃的主要精神是：

1. 把生活經驗與學習結合，這樣，學習才有意義；
2. 重視學生寫作時的意念，而不只是文字的準確性；
3. 作文就是一篇作品，既然是作品，那就可以讓許多讀者閱讀；
4. 以兒童為中心，讓孩子按自己的意願作文。

2. 全語文取向(Whole Language Approach)

全語文取向(Whole Language Approach)是美國、澳洲及紐西蘭等地近年流行的一種教學法，也許說，這不是一種教學法，而是一個教學哲學，一種對教育的理念，華森（Watson 1989）為全語文下的定義為：

全語文是一套互相支援的信念，教學策略和經驗，讓孩子在一種無拘無束的環境下學習閱讀，寫作，說話和聆聽[2]。

全語文是一套涉及教師、教學法和學生學習的語言教育哲學，它的信念是語言要有社會功能，它既主要用來溝通，所以要有實用價值，而聽說讀寫彼此要配合。學生對學習的內容產生興趣，自然會學得好，因此教學應以學生為中心，多安排課內或課外活動，鼓勵學生積極參與，從而獲得語言的能力。

葛文(Kenneth S. Goodman，1986)提到要為全語文取向(Whole Language Approach)下一個定義並不容易，因為它既不是教學法，又不是一種措施，它其實是一種信念、態度和哲學。葛文介紹全語文並不單只是提供另一種選擇那麼簡單。這不是一個閱讀的教學法，這是一個關乎學習、教學、語言和課程的哲學，全語文為閱讀和寫作重新下定義，通過書寫的文字，讀寫成了有意義的過程，全語文融合口語和書面語的發展與思維和知識增長的發展，學生在閱讀和寫作中學習讀和寫以及學習解決困難。

葛文從心理學角度分析了甚麼因素令語文學習變得容易或困難，可見下表：

表一：　甚麼因素令語文學習變得容易／困難？

容易學習，假如：	很難學習，假如：
真實和自然	虛假
整體	割裂成部分或片段
有意義的	沒有意義的
有趣的	沉悶，沒有趣味的
與學習者有關的	與學習者無關的
屬於學習者的	屬於其他人的
是真實事件的一部分	與實際生活不相干
有社會性的用途	沒有社會價值
配合學習者自己的目的	沒有明顯的目的
學習者自己選擇去用	由其他人強迫
學習者可以掌握	不能掌握
學習者有能力去用	沒有能力去用

在真實的世界中學習語言很容易，但在學校學習語言卻很困難，但其實應該也是容易的。因為學校把語言分割成部分和片段，兒童學完一個部分才到另一部分，而他們真實的情況卻不是這樣，所以很快便忘記了。葛文認為這樣的學習十分無聊。

全語文取向的精神與發展心理學有密切的關係。近年來，發展心理學派提出新的觀點。這派的學者透過大量的研究，証實了兒童其實是一個內在語文能力豐富的個體，只要課程和教師的引導適當，兒童可以表現出內在的語文能力。他們發現讀、寫能力在幼兒時期就有相當的發展，只要成人給與機會與適度的鼓勵，兒童的書面語言將會提早出現，而且能如口頭語言發展一樣的輕鬆和成功。全語文取向就是基於發展心理學派這種對兒童語言的發展而提出來的。

科西(Victor Froese，1991)認為：全語文是以兒童為中心和以實際應用的文字為中心(literature-based)，盡量使兒童在真正的溝通環境中學習，所謂實際應用的文字為中心，就是以各種文字資料：包括故事和資訊的資料作為教學材料。所謂真正的溝通，即有真實的聽眾或對象。此外，在教學時要注意以下三點：

1. 引自摩根(Felicity Morgan) "Writing in Perspective" Curriculum 1989 p.30

2. Dorothy J. Watson, 'Defining and Describing Whole Language' The Elementary School Journal (Chicago: The University of Chicago) Vol 90, Number 2, 1989, p.129 - 141

1) 語言是人類活動的自然發展，它是社會的現象，目的是為了溝通；
2) 語言學習和教學要尊重學習者的興趣和獨特性，因此是個人化的；
3) 語言學習的活動就是在世界上做一些有意義的事情，因此在起初時，語言不應分段方式來學，語言應完整地，在一定語境中學習，而不是孤立地學某些部分和片段。

吳敏而（1994）從一個發展心理學的趨向介紹全語文。她在一次研討會說：

透過大量的研究，証實了兒童其實是一個內在語文能力豐富的個體，只要課程與教師的引導適當，兒童將會表現出內在的語文能力。在「讀寫萌發」(emergent literacy)的相關研究中發現，讀、寫能力在幼兒時期就有相當的發展，只要成人給與機會與適度的鼓勵，兒童的書面語言將會提早出現，而且能如口頭語言發展一樣的輕鬆和成功。近來配合語言心理發展的研究，延伸以(whole language)為名的語文教學模式，這個模式強調以語言教育為中心整合各學科的教育[3]。

吳敏而介紹全語文是一個自然的學習，是一個跨學科的學習模式。在台灣，Whole Language有時被翻譯為全語言，黃繼仁（1997）給它的定義是：

全語言教學是一種理論與實踐緊密結合的哲學，也是一組綜合學習和教學、尊重教師與學生信念系統，強調在真實情境的脈落下實施聽、說、讀、寫與整體課成統整的教學，教材以文學作品和真實生活的素材為主，在合作學習之中著重於交互激盪的意義建構歷程，進行有功能的、有意義而且有目的的實質學習，提供學生兼顧知情意的完整學習經驗，是一種能夠實際應用於日常生活的整全教育。

基於以上各家的說法，全語文取向可以總結如下：
1) 以兒童為中心，而不是以教師或教材為中心。教師只扮演一個協助者的角色。
2) 全語文是一種哲學，這種哲學信念，就是不要製造鸚鵡，不希望學童只能複製或複述教師預設的答案，而希望能培養孩子能應用已有的知識和創新思想，盡量表達不是屬於他人，而是屬於學習者自己的，真實的和有意義的東西。
3) 全語文的主要前提是：語言（口說語言和書寫語言）不應被劃分成內容或技巧的部分，而須在對學習者有意義的真實情境中使用而學習。
4) 從使用語言中學習語言，換言之，即從閱讀中學習閱讀，在書寫中學習書寫。在這樣的學習過程中，同時學習如何解決困難。
5) 學習不應割裂成部分或片段，因為每一單項單獨地學習是沒有意義的，要從一個有意義的整體中學習每一個單項，這樣的學習才是有趣味性和自然，也是較容易。
6) 容許錯誤，即使是錯誤，這只不過是反映學習者正處於不同的學習階段，他們會按自己的進程而發展。教師擔任一個輔助的角色，因此會鼓勵學童冒險，目的是盡量使用語言表達自己，即使不準確，也不會被認為是失敗者。
7) 語言是在一個互動的，社會的過程中獲得。因此，同輩也可以彼此互相幫助學習。

3. 放膽文

國內者也認為寫作教學需要改革。郭惜珍等(1991)提倡讓學生寫放膽文，所謂放膽文就是「我口說我心，我手寫我口」。先讓學生寫順了筆，然後才講求文字的基本功，郭惜珍等也是因為寫作教學出了問題才提出放膽文，他在〈小學生作文以寫放膽文開始為好〉一文中說：

小學生初學作文，有的教師看到學生有困難，就採用誦讀一篇範文，讓學生去模仿，或是幫助編寫統一的提綱，提供詞語，共同討論文章開頭、結尾、段落，然後讓學生動筆的辦法。這無異是把整篇文章口授給學生，讓學生記下來，不是讓學生寫自己的思想，而是寫別人的思想。這樣扼殺了學生自己的思想，扼殺了自由表達。不是讓學生按自己的想法去作文，而是迎合教師的需要去編文，寫出來的內容千篇一律，不是學生自己的東西，也就難以反映學生真實的寫作水平。學生對這種削足就履的做法常常感到膩味，漸漸產生了對作文的厭惡情緒，後患無窮[4]。

放膽文著重學生的興趣，解除學生對作文恐懼的心理，打破一切條條框框的限制，鼓勵學生無拘無束地放開膽子寫，讓學生在輕鬆愉快氣氛中用書面語表達自己的意思，反映事物，熟練地掌握口頭語言書面化的技巧。全語文寫作在香港實踐的時候，也鼓勵學生放膽寫文，老師不給寫作提綱，減少學生的束縛，老師只擔任一個輔助者的角色，幫助學生寫自己想表達的東西。

4. 注音識字，提前讀寫

嚴格來說，這並不是一套作文教學的策略，而是一個小學語文教學的改革。在50年代，國內的老師都把注意力放在識字這一重點上，於是推行了「集中識字」、

3 吳敏而「從兒童語文教育趨向看注音教材」載於《海峽兩岸小學語文教學研討會論文集》頁147

4 郭惜珍、張田若「小學生作文以寫放膽文開始為好」載於《小學作文教學》頁158

「分散識字」等多種做法。佟樂泉、張一清等老師覺得這些識字的方式，有意無意便固定了一種學習模式，那就是小學生入學之初先集中力量識字，然後讀書，然後才作文，這個被形容為「三階段」的做法引起上述老師的懷疑和不滿，因為如果要識字才能讀書，一定要花費相當長時間積累一定的識字量才可以閱讀，而用有限的文字寫出一些兒童看得懂的文句來，內容遠遠追不上孩子思維的水平，這樣便不利於甚至可能阻滯了兒童語言的發展。於是他們便從語言和思維發展的角度出發，合理安排書面語的學習。在教學的時候，不從學生所學過的漢字出發去選擇課文，而是放手讓學生讀適應他們言語和思維水平加拼音的文章。作文也不局限於學生會寫哪些字，而是鼓勵學生寫出他們的話語和意思來。由於低年級兒童口語和書面語的水平相差懸殊，因此要借助漢語拼音進行過渡，那就是讓學生閱讀加注漢語拼音的文章，允許學生用漢語拼音寫話。於是，一年級的學生也可以寫文。

「全語文寫作教學」在香港實施的情況是：提前寫作，小一下學期便開始篇章作文，而不是如香港小學中國語文科課程綱要的建議，在小三才篇章寫作。不會寫的字，雖然不能用拼音代替，但可用符號或圖畫作暫時過渡。根據「注音識字，提前讀寫」的研究，學生提早整體地寫篇，而不是割裂的一個句一個段地寫，對小朋友的思維發展有幫助。

總的來說：中外學者都認為教學應配合兒童心理的發展，學習應和現實生活結合，這樣的學習才能引起學生的興趣；同時語文學習應整體地學習，所以聽、說、讀和寫不應割裂。這些意見成為香港「全語文寫作教學」課程的理據。

四・課程內容

「全語文寫作教學」在香港推行的情況是這樣的：這是一個校本的寫作教學課程，其精神主要是要改變傳統的寫作教學模式。香港教育署課程發展議會的《中國語文科小學課程綱要》(1990)是全港小學的指引。一般小學會參考《綱要》訂定學校的教學計劃。《綱要》建議：在寫作教學方面，小一寫句、小二寫段、小三開始命題作文，有最低字數的要求。傳統的寫作教學便是：小一按句式作句，小二按圖寫段或聯段成篇，小三寫文時，老師先給寫作大綱，大多數的學生都按老師的大綱寫作，並要完成規定的字數。老師批改後，要全篇謄正。「全語文寫作教學」要打破這些規限，它實施的內容是這樣的：

1. 小一下學期進行篇章寫作。
2. 老師不給寫作大綱。學生學習用「腦圖」先構思寫作的內容。
3. 老師只提供情境，並引導學生進入情境。例如：講故事或故事的一個段落，或介紹一個地方，如超級市場的環境……，老師便引導學生進行想像，然後讓學生寫作。
4. 結合聽、說、讀和寫的關係。例如教課文時，介紹文章的寫作方法；老師或先介紹兒童讀物，然後學生才寫作；或讓學生先說一說才寫，有時或會寫後才說；或會先聽後寫，或先寫後聽然後再寫等。
5. 老師不要求一個固定的寫作題目，老師給一個題目母題，學生可以按母題而自訂自己的題目一子題。例如老師給的母題是：複製，學生可以寫：複製小貓，我最想複製××，複製的利或弊，複製的歷史，複製的方法等。總之，學生可按自己想寫的內容自訂題目。
6. 學生也可選擇寫作的體裁。例如：老師給的題目是：夏天，學生可以寫夏天的詩，夏天的一件事（記敘文），夏天的食物（說明文），我喜歡/不喜歡夏天（議論文），或寫一篇以夏天為題材的故事、劇本……都可以。
7. 學生不會寫的字和詞語，可以用圖畫或符號暫時代替，不要因為不會寫的字而停下寫作，也不要回避不會寫的概念。每個學生要預備一本筆記簿，在老師巡視時，請老師在筆記簿上寫上剛才不會寫的的字，然後自己抄寫在圖畫或符號上。如果沒有時間問老師，在老師批改後，把正確的字寫在筆記簿上。
8. 作文不計字數，也不用謄文。
9. 學生寫作完後，先由同學互評。教師設簡單寫作量表，同學可按量表互相給分，也可以寫自己的意見。互評後，才交作文給老師。
10. 老師只作重點批改。在學生的作文上指出需要修改的地方，讓學生重寫某一部分。寫錯了的詞語或句子，修改後在筆記簿上謄正。
11. 老師批改作文時，不會打分，只給圈印。圈印多少表示該次作文的表現。
12. 老師的批改包括在學生的文章上寫回應。派作文後，也請學生的家長在作文上寫回應。
13. 老師以至少一節做作文評講。評講課也可以請學生朗讀自己的作文。
14. 老師會以學生筆記簿上的詞語或句子作為默書、練習或評講的材料。
15. 老師批改作文後，把學生的文章分批貼在教室的牆

5. 見香港課程發展議會編訂（1990）《中國語文科小一至小六課程綱要》頁24

上或佈告版上，讓同學有機會互相觀摩。

16. 老師設計一些美麗的圖形，請同學把佳句寫在上面，然後張貼在教室內，讓大家欣賞。
17. 遇有不認真寫作的同學，老師便會取消他進行全語文寫作的權利，只准採用命題寫作形式。

五・教學實踐

「全語文寫作教學」進行已有六個年頭了，它的實踐情況是這樣的：

1. 研究小組的工作

自一九九七年獲語文基金贊助後，便成立了一個研究小組，成員包括謝錫金博士、筆者及一個研究助理。除研究助理是全職外，前二者都在大專院校任教。為實踐「全語文寫作教學」，曾完成以下各項工作：

(1) 教師培訓：共十七次

次數	日期
1	1995.8.24（上午）
2	1995.8.24（下午）
3	1995.8.25
4	1996.1.24
5	1998.8.24（上午）
6	1998.8.24（下午）
7	1998.12.22
8	1999.2.12
9	1999.8.24
10	2000.5.11
11	2000.6.10
12	2000.6.17
13	2000.6.24
14	2000.7.8
15	2000.7.15
16	2000.8.28
17	2000.9.23

第1至9次是提供給核心學校的教師培訓，每次參加的人數在40至80人之間。後來由於有許多學校對這個計畫有興趣，所以由第10至16次的講座是公開的，特別是第11至15次是在香港各區進行，由教育署各分區推廣，每次參加人數約100至150左右。第17次是一所小學申請優質教育基金的教師培訓，除了該校上、下午班的老師外，也有來自其他學校的老師，約100人參加。

(2) 課堂錄影：研究助理到各校進行錄影，由一九九八年八月到一九九九年五月，約有二十次各級的「全語文寫作教學」課堂錄影帶[6]。

(3) 與教師及校長座談：筆者與研究助理在一九九八年十一月至一九九九年二月期間，到各校與教師及校長見面，解答教師推行「全語文寫作教學」時遇到的問題。

(4) 訪問校長、教師及學生：筆者與研究助理在一九九九年六月至一九九九年七月期間，以及二000年六月，曾到各校與校長、教師學生及見面，了解他們對「全語文寫作教學」的意見。

(5) 教師手冊：在教師培訓期間，曾印製了四本教師手冊，各本重點如下：

冊次	日期	重點
第一冊	1998.8.24（上午）	全語文寫作理論
第二冊	1998.8.24（下午）	寫作能力的發展
第三冊	1998.12.22	學生寫作能力的發展常模
第四冊	1999.5.11	如何制定一個寫作教學教案

(6) 教材套：在一九九七至九八年期間，研究小組曾向各核心小學派發三次寫作教學的教材套，包括教學程序建議、評估量表，有時會附圖片、文章或兒童圖書。教材套分低、中及高年級三類。內容是：

年級	題目
低	自己編故事
	我愛＿＿＿天
低／中	三只羊的故事
	我是你的好朋友
中	複製
	看圖創作故事
	我最喜愛的電視節目
	假如我是（人／物）
	××，我要消滅你
	組合策略
	素描大特寫
高	人際關係和解難能力
	情＿＿喜、怒、哀、樂
	潮流由我創＿××××
	滅蚊＿××

教材套附教具。除教材套外，教師手冊和通訊都有教學設計的介紹，但只是一個簡單的教學過程。

6 錄影帶放在香港教育學院中國語文研習中心，地址是：大埔露屏道10號香港教育學院中國語文研習中心（B3-G），電話是：29487402。該中心開放給所有老師。

(7) 教學通訊：曾出版三期「全語文寫作教學」通訊，各期重點是：

期數	日期	重點
創刊號	1999.1	全語文是甚麼、答問篇及「全語文寫作教學」參考書目介紹
第二期	1999.8	「全語文寫作教學」的再思、「觀察與寫作」講稿及「全語文寫作」要不斷檢討、探究和改善
第三期	2000.5	「全語文寫作教學」專題介紹及寫作教學教案舉例

以上所有文字的資料都放在香港教育學院中國語文研習中心，供大家參閱[7]。

(8) 設立網站

研究小組已把有關資料上網，讓有興趣的人士自行查閱。網址是：http:www.chinesedu.hku.hk 電子郵箱是：chinedu@hkucc.hku.hk

(9) 發表文章

謝錫金博士、核心的小學校長、小學中文科科主任、老師及筆者曾分別及合作在本港或外地的報刊、雜誌或教育研討會發表文章，介紹「全語文寫作教學」推行的成果[8]。

2. 學校的改變

「全語文寫作教學」的推行由起初一所學校到三所，後來擴展到九所核心小學，它們都是全校小一至小六進行全語文寫作。此外，還有許多沒有正式加入的學校，在部分年級推行。「全語文寫作教學」對這些學校都造成了一定的改變。現試從幾方面說明：

(1) 學生方面：

學生比以前較敢於表達自己，因為他們不需要回避不會寫的字和意念；同時他們知道不需要謄文，所以雖然沒有字數的要求，反而寫得比以前更多。但有少數學生例外，那是思維能力較弱的學生，他們需要較多的指引。

九九年七月，筆者曾到各核心學校訪問。從問卷及訪問中，一般學生都喜歡全語文寫作，這種寫作的形式令他們提高了寫作的興趣，有許多學生常追問老師甚麼時候派作文，這種情況是以前從不會有的。因為學生現在的寫作對象不單是老師，學生都喜歡可以看到別人的作文。學生也會覺得寫作是有意義的事情，和自己有關的，有實用價值的。

這種寫作的模式也令學生學會尊重別人。全語文寫作是很自由、開放的，學生甚麼都能寫，開始的時候有些學生罵同學或罵別人，這是自由到民主必經的過程。經老師的勸諭後，同學開始明白自由不等於放任和不負責任，否則便會失去自由的權利了。

「全語文寫作教學」著重老師或家長的回應，所以這類型的作文，增加教師和學生的溝通，也培養親子有較密切的關係。

(2) 老師方面

由於不需要精批細改，教師在批改方面的工作量減少了。但這不等於老師偷懶，這種寫作模式完全暴露了學生真正的情況，所以教師知道學生需要寫卻不會寫甚麼的字、詞或概念，句子和內容方面在哪方面有問題，於是教師便可以針對問題進行評講，或提供補教的練習。

研究小組派發了三次教材套及通訊，老師就此一起討論如何使用和落實。有些學校的教師訂下定期討論的時間，互相交流教學心得。「全語文寫作教學」加強了教師的團隊精神。

有些學校的老師自己設計教材套，許多比研究小組提供的更有創意，更適合該校的學生。藉「全語文寫作教學」，教師能有機會發揮自己的專長。

研究小組安排的教師培訓，是教師的一次進修。教師認識「全語文寫作教學」的理念，得到一些寫作教學的新知識，提高了教師的教學能力。許多學校都要求教師互相觀課，學習彼此的優點。觀課文化也幫助教師更成長。

有些學校的教師已有多年「全語文寫作教學」的經驗，研究小組便請他們在教師培訓講座中分享經驗。他們的講說仿如研究報告，有些教師更以「全語文寫作教學」作為教育學士或碩士的論文題目。藉「全語文寫作教學」，教師的專業地位也得以提高。筆者曾在內地及海外介紹香港這個寫作計畫，引起許多教育學者的興趣。有一位核心學校的校長也以「全語文寫作教學」在學校的實踐作為博士論文題目。

(3) 寫作課程方面

「全語文寫作教學」是一種校本的寫作課程，每所學校的處理都不同。有些學校保留一半的寫作課作傳統的寫作訓練，以確保學生能學習必須的重點，其餘則進行全語文寫作。以一學期寫作十篇為例，有時是五五之比或四六之比不等。

傳統的寫作，學生多用直行有格的本子，這種寫作

7 同註6

8 筆者曾在中國（1997）、台灣（1998）、美國（2000）及新加坡（2000）等地介紹這個寫作計劃

工具不適合「全語文寫作教學」。所以開始時，學校用圖畫紙來給學生寫作，後來特定設計一種橫行，有量表及回應一欄，並可以單張掀開的本子，使老師可以把文章張貼在牆上。

教師也盡量提供寫作的機會。有些老師要學生有一本隨筆本子，遇有甚麼事情，例如：刮風、受罰等，也讓學生寫寫感受。有些學校進行與其他學校「書信交流計畫」，例如呂明才小學曾和台北及杭州的小學學同學互通書信。總之，

「全語文寫作教學」就是要學生多讀、多說和多寫。

(4) 學校方面

「全語文寫作教學」使學校形成了一種寫作的文化。學生見老師要寫便條，學生可以寫信給校長，校長也會回信給學生。寫作不限於寫作課，日常生活也要寫東西，所以學生覺得寫作是實用的。一九九九年，有一所學校就這個寫作計畫，獲得優質教育基金撥款，為學生的全語文作文出版一本學生的文集，可見學校十分重視提倡學生的寫作風氣。

由於「全語文寫作教學」提倡聽、說、讀和寫的結合，不但語文科是整體地學習，而且各學科也可以整體地學習，於是有跨學科學習的設計，有些學校便進行課程統整，在其他學科中也同時學習語文。

寫作的對象不只是老師、家長也是讀者。「全語文寫作教學」使教師對家長的認識增加了，在家長的回應中，可以幫助老師知道家長對孩子的看法或期望。

幾所核心學校的老師常參加教師培訓，這些聚會加強了來自不同地區的校長和老師之間的聯絡，大家可以互相交流和取經。

這種寫作的模式得到傳媒的報導，寫作的成果又常在研討會上報告，這種校本的寫作改革得到肯定，學校被稱為先導學校，學校的地位也無形中提高了。研究助理在2000年初曾接到幾位家長的電話，徵詢有哪些學校進行教學改革，包括「全語文寫作教學」，作為他們為孩子選擇入讀小一的標準。由此看來，推行「全語文寫作教學」的學校已得到家長的認同。

六・推廣過程

「全語文寫作教學」的推廣由開始到目前，可用以下的流程表示：

表五：推廣流程圖

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七・結語

以前的課程改革，總是由上而下，由中央頒布，學校便跟著執行。這樣往往流於紙上談兵，不能適合真實的情況。「全語文寫作教學」是一個大專院校和小學合作的寫作改革計畫。大學提供建基於理論的推動力，學校提供實際推行的經驗。兩者合起來，使這個寫作計畫有堅實的理論根據，也有豐富的具體的實行模式。這種結合值得推行教育改革人士借鏡。

「全語文寫作教學」讓學生提高了學生寫作的興趣，不再討厭作文，使寫作教學走出了死胡同，是值得繼續推行的。

「全語文寫作教學」也讓校長和教師提高了專業的地位，他們不再是被動的政策執行者，而是改革的先導者和創造者，小學校長和語文老師的能力是不應低估的。

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(Received: 3.8.00, accepted: 16.10.00, revised: 6.11.00)

比較教學法在中文教學上的應用

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為配合最近幾年本港教育改革和社會的轉變，我們有需要培養能獨立思考、具有解難與有創意的學生，以面對21世紀的挑戰。在教育上要達到上述目的的方法有多種，而在中文教學上應用比較教學法，可能是一項有效的方法。

本文討論比較教學法的理論，包括它的涵義、價值、種類、設計與施行。其次舉出幾種教學實例，最後並論及它的優點與局限。

The Use of Comparison Teaching Method in the Teaching of Chinese

To cope with the local educational reforms and the change of Hong Kong society, with the aim of facing the challenge of the 21st Century, it is especially urgent that we should train our youngsters in the way that they can think independently, creatively and can solve the problems themselves. There are many ways in educational aspect to achieve these goals. The use of comparison teaching method in the teaching of Chinese may be one of the effective ways.

This article dues with the theory of comparison teaching method, including its definition, its value, its types, the different designs and how to put them into practice. In the end, it will discuss the strong points to use this method as well as its limitations.

一・引言

在現行的中國語文科課程中，單篇的範文教學佔了課程的很大比例，而且行之經年。這種教學模式的好處是可以讓學生較集中地學習課文中的語文知識與課文內容，使學生較容易掌握。但缺點則是欠缺系統，學生不容易從一篇篇獨立的課文中學習到完整、有系統的語文知識和能力，使教師與學生容易把中文科的教與學只集中在範文的內容上，記誦單篇的課文內容，而導致捨本逐末之弊。

廿一世紀的來臨，香港的教育界及社會各階層皆對香港的教育制度有極強烈的改革要求，以期能培養出香港的下一代，有足夠的能力去面對未來社會的生活與挑戰。當中特別強調要培養的，是學生的獨立思考能力、創意思維、解難能力、和終生學習等能力。要達到這些教育目標，則需要進行教育改革，更需要本港從事教育的人士通力合作，方能取得成效。作為中文科的教師，我們急切需要思考的是如何能在現時中文科以教授單篇範文為主的教學模式中，教導及培養學生上面列舉的能力，以配合教育改革和社會的轉變。筆者不敏，提出中文教學，利用比較教學的方法，提高中文教學的質素與水準，以培養學生更佳的語文能力和思考能力。其實，比較教學的方法，在中文教學上早已應用，只不過是因著種種的理由，未能有系統及更有效的運用罷了；故此，對比較教學作理論上的探討和實質的教學設計，似乎是一件刻不容緩的事情。

二・比較教學法的理論基礎

本文的目的有下列幾點：1.對比較教學法作理論的探討，包括比較教學法的涵義與要旨；2.、比較教學法在中文教學上的價值；3.比較教學法的種類，以及4.比較教學法在中文科的設計與施行。

1. 比較教學法的涵義與要旨

中文教學上運用比較教學法，是把兩篇或兩篇以上的課文拿來作比較分析，找出課文之間的相同處以及每篇課文的特點，使學生對課文有更深入的理解，更透徹的認識，增進學生思考分析的能力。語文教育學者傅永安認為「語文比較教學，就是在語文教學中運用比較法

進行的教學，其實質在於有目的、有計劃地靈活使用教材，充份發揮比較法在教學中的功能，通過多角度、多層面的有效比較，提高教學效率。」由傅氏的說法，可見比較教學法在語文教學中是具有獨特教育價值的。

在運用比較教學法時，教師的角色與任務在於：

- 指導學生哪些課文較適合作比較；
- 教導學生比較的方法；
- 指示學生比較的範圍與內容；
- 給學生示範及講解課文的比較；
- 協助及輔導學生自行對課文加以比較；
- 培養學生比較分析的興趣與思維能力。

至於學生應盡的責任與任務則是：

- 學習教師所教授的比較方法；
- 留心教師對每課課文的講解和實際比較的示範，從中掌握比較的要訣；
- 在學習之餘，須作反思，以使教師的講授能內化為一己的思維能力；
- 自行對課文多作比較的分析思考，以培養分析的興趣和能力；
- 把比較的範疇擴及於課外閱讀和寫作之上，以全面提昇自己的語文能力。

其實，比較教學法的目的，是要把單篇範文的教學模式加以改善，使原本割裂的語文知識能夠加以連貫起來，從而令學生更有系統和條理去學習，使每篇課文不再是獨立的個體，而是能夠互相關連、互相比較印證的單元，藉以提高學生的學習效率。

至於比較的方法和內容，則主要是在數篇課文之間找出彼此相同、相異、以及既相同也相異的地方，以使學生對語文知識和課文篇章有更全面、更清晰的認識。

2. 比較教學法在中文教學上的價值

比較教學法在中文教學上可以發揮多方面的功能和作用，以下將分項討論：

培養學生的語文知識和能力

藉著比較教學的方法，可以讓學生更能掌握語文的知識和能力。例如在文字的形、音、義教學方面，教師可將一些在字形、字音與字義相類與近似的文字羅列出來，並且把它們互相比較，以找出它們之間微細的分別，從而使學生不會對它們混淆。又如在詞語教學方面，教師亦可將一些同義詞拿來作比較，以見出它們之間不易眼的用法的差別，使學生能更準確及得心應手地運用詞語[5]。

若教師能教曉學生有關的比較方法，則學生便可隨時自行對一些他不太清楚的同類字詞加以比較。經過比較，將對學生的語文知識的學習大有助益，增強了他們的語文能力。

培養學生欣賞和評鑒的能力

應用比較教學法，能在分析比較的過程中，建立學生欣賞和評鑒的審美能力。因為在課文與課文的比較中，學生必能看出其中同異之處和優劣之處；若教師長期給予學生比較法的教授，學生在潛移默化和自覺練習之下，必定能培養出一套欣賞與審美的標準和能力。

比較教學的功用是很大的，因為引導學生對同一單元之間的教材，或主題與題材相類的教材，去進行比較，往往可以提高學生的欣賞能力。因此適當的運用比較，不但可以加深學生對有關課材的認識，增進學生的記憶，而且是培養學生欣賞能力的有效方法。

培養學生分析和創作的能力

教師運用比較教學法，可以培養學生分析和創作的能力。因為在比較的過程中，學生需要對課文作深入細緻的觀察與理解，然後再小心考察當中的同異及優劣之處，方能達致比較的目的。在這思考審察的過程中，學生需要不斷作出分析與衡量的思維，建立理性分析的思考能力。孔子曾說「學而不思則罔，思而不學則殆」[6]，這是為學的金石良言。運用比較教學法，學與思的成份都包括在內，對學生有長遠的助益。無怪乎語文教育學者黃新宇也說「比較教學法在語文教學中有其廣泛的作用。實踐証明：學生能夠在比較中求得真知，在比較中發展智力。」[7]

此外，比較教學法也能培養起學生的創作潛能。因為學生對課文比較多了，認識深了，自然便會提高鑒別文章優劣的能力。使學生對創作的法則有深入的認識，在寫作及從事其他創作活動時能得心應手。通過比較，確實可以開拓學生的思路，增加學生的創作能力[8]。

培養學生探究的精神和能力

進行比較學習時，學生的思維不斷的轉動，探研課文之間的同異和優劣之處，培養了學生探究的精神與能力。對課文進行比較分析，當中就有一種無形的吸引力與趣味性，吸引著學生去探尋真相，判斷其中的優劣，引發起學生探究的興趣與精神了。另外，學生多對範文進行比較評析，也能建立起自行探究事理的能力。

提高學生閱讀與寫作的能力

中文科教學的目的，主要在培養學生聽、說、讀、寫四方面的語文能力，而當中尤著重閱讀與寫作兩方面。比較教學法的應用，使學生在閱讀與寫作方面的能

力予以提昇。因為學生進行比較分析時，要把文章閱讀及理解得透徹，方能獲得比較的基礎。這就使得學生在閱讀時加倍細心及著意，把文中的意思了解透徹。而且在進行比較以後，學生對課文的理解加深，並能從中學習閱讀的要訣，增進閱讀的能力。又在經過比較以後，學生能判別文章的好壞優劣，更能認識到寫作好文章的法則，對提高他們的寫作能力也大有幫助。

增加學生學習中文的興趣

透過比較教學法的應用，可增加學生學習中文的興趣。單篇的講授課文，學生能夠思考的空間較小，若以比較教學法來進行教學，則篇章與篇章之間便有了聯繫，學生的思維空間也擴闊得多了，學生能發揮思考的機會也得以增加，學生學習中文的興趣也有所提昇。因此傅永安與周漢光都認為透過比較的教學方式，能夠激發起學生學習語文的興趣。[11]

3. 比較教學法的種類

比較教學法在中文教學上的應用，可以分為五大類別，以下予以簡略說明。[12]

（1）內容比較

顧名思義，內容比較即是把兩篇或以上的篇章拿來作內容思想上的比較、分析。當中又可細分為「標題比較」、「開頭結尾照應比較」、「人物形像比較」、「寫景狀物比較」、「設例比較」、「引證比較」、「論証方法比較」、「史實比較」等分項[13]。

內容比較的方法，在於把篇章中的內容重點條分縷析進行比較，以見出同異之處。如果比較教學運用得當，可使學生對每篇文章有更深入的認識、更新穎的見解、更廣博的視野與更深刻的記憶。

（2）技巧比較

所謂技巧比較，即是把篇章中所運用的寫作技巧作一比較，藉此以見出篇章寫作手法的相同和相異、高明與拙劣，有利於對文章作一全面的評價。

技巧比較的方法，可以從不同作者在描寫同一樣的事物中所運用的不同寫作手法，加以分析和比較，以見出各自的特點和效果；也可以對同一種寫作手法在不同作者的手中或不同的環境中加以分析探研，藉以清楚該種寫作技巧的用法以及能夠達致的效果。

對寫作手法的比較，能使學生對每種技巧掌握得更熟練，加強寫作的能力；也可以培養學生對文章或文學作品評鑒與欣賞的能力，增強閱讀的效果。

（3）體裁比較

所謂體裁比較，是指將不同篇章的文體和體裁加以比較，從而見出每種體裁和每篇課文的特點。至於體裁的分類方法，可從實用文的角度來劃分，其中有記敘文、說明文、議論文、描寫文、應用文等；另外也可從文學作品的角度來劃分，可分為小說、散文、詩歌、戲劇等。

有關文章的體裁的比較，則有「同體比較」和「異體比較」兩種。同體比較，是把相同體裁的篇章，加以歸納分析，找出該種文體的作法和結構特色；異體比較，則是把不同體裁的篇章加以較研究，以找出每種體裁的相對特色和擅長表達的方式[14]。進行體裁比較的目的，是要讓學生能夠更熟悉每種體裁的特性，從而使學生在閱讀和寫作時，得到更大的效益。

（4）古今比較

古今比較，即是把古典的文言作品與現代的白話作品加以比較，以顯示出兩者的差別與各自的特點。根據傅永安的論點，古今比較教學可以分從「古今詞義」、「古今創作方法」、和「古今篇章風格」三方面進行[15]。所謂古今詞義的比較，簡單而言即是文言與白話(古代漢語和現代漢語)在文詞上的比較，當中包括字詞的意義、詞性、用法、讀音等方面的探討，以見出古今漢語的傳承關係和各自的差異與特點。

至於古今創作方法和篇章風格的比較，則較著重文學層面的探討，可以使學生知道中國文學的傳承和發展的關係，對學生在閱讀和寫作方面有很大的幫助。

中國的文化源遠流長，如能使學生對古今文章作一比較，必能使他們對中國的文化與文學有更深刻的認識。此外，古語與今語兩者其實有著極密切的關係，若學生能對文言與白話有透徹的認識，那麼，學生在運用語文方面便更加得心應手了。

（5）綜合比較

所謂綜合比較，即是對篇章之間作出全面而綜合的比較和分析，當中包括了內容、技巧、體裁等各方面的比較。這種比較能讓學生掌握全面的語文知識和技巧[16]。對學生有較高的要求，學生必先對每個分項都有深刻的認識，方能對篇章作品作中肯而全面的綜合比較。

關於綜合比較的方法，可著學生先對篇章中的每個小項作出比較與分析，再將之結合來審察，從整體上加以綜合的審評與比較，得出整體的印象與評價。

若學生的程度較高，可以著學生先直接對篇章作整體性及印象式的比較與評析，然後才落到每個分項作仔細的比較與考察。而綜合比較的目的，則在於訓練學生綜合運用各種語文知識與能力，達到全面性語文學習的目的。

4. 比較教學法的設計與施行

甲、比較教學的設計原則與組織

（1）確立教學目標

為了要使比較教學能夠有更佳的教學成果，教師在施教前是必須先確立教學的目標與目的。教學活動有了重點與重心，教學過程便能夠事半功倍。而比較教學的教學目標，是讓學生更了解課文的內容，認識一些同義字詞的差別與用法，學習寫作的技巧等。

（2）選取比較的課文

在確定了教學的目標以後，教師則需要選取一些適合作比較的課文和篇章，以進行比較教學。就教學目標：如內容、作法、體裁、古今、綜合式等等，選取一些最能突顯各種特色的文章讓學生比較。選材方面，教師需考慮學生的程度與能力、課文篇章的教育意義與合適程度來選取。這樣，方能使教學獲得最大的果效。

（3）決定比較的內容與重點

教師需就進行比較的篇章，選定要比較的內容與重點，以免在時間緊逼的課堂上漫無所依，終致學生未能有效地學習。所比較的重點，可以是內容方面、寫作技巧方面、文章體裁方面等。初期着重簡單容易的單項比較，隨之可作兩種或兩種以上的比較，最終則作綜合比較。教師要指示學生所比較的是篇章之間的相同之處、相異之處、還是相同與相異皆需探求。教師也要讓學生預先理解，要求的比較方向和方法，是廣度與深度比較，還是影響與傳承的比較等。

（4）教師加以講解與示範

在課堂上，教師需教授比較的方法與要旨，並有有用的示範與說明，使學生掌握基本的比較方法，起舉一反三的作用，加深及內化學生對比較方法與理論的認識，建立起自行比較課文篇章的能力。

（5）學生自行討論

教師在講授完比較的方法及示範過篇章的比較以後，需給予時間讓學生自行對篇章進行比較與分析，使學生有親身體驗的機會，建立及鞏固比較分析的能力。至於討論的方式，可以是師生共同討論；或是學生先分組討論，再由教師加以訂正，讓意見得以交流，培養判斷的能力。

（6）評鑒活動

在教師講授有關比較的方法及讓學生進行練習以後，教師需設計有關的評鑒活動，以評估學生對比較分析方法的掌握程度。而評鑒的方式，可以是功課作業，亦可以是測驗與考試的題目[17]。

乙、比較教學施行的方法與形式

黃新宇認為在語文教學上實踐比較教學的方式是多種多樣的：它可以是單篇範文的內部比較、不同範文的比較、課外材料與範文的比較等形式；而施行的方法則有擴增法、刪節法、換位法、優選法、示錯法、圖表法、舉例法、以及綜合法等[17]。傅永安提出比較教學的方法有「縱向比較法」、「橫向比較法」、「連鎖比較法」、「連環比較法」、「變角度比較法」、以及「輻射比較法」[18]。

至於在課堂上施行的方法與形式，則有：

（1）教師講授

教師在課堂上講授比較的各種方法，以及進行篇章比較的示範。

（2）師生討論

師生在課堂上共同對篇章進行討論及比較，教師邀請同學發表意見，然後再由教師加以補充及訂正。

（3）小組討論

教師把全班學生分為數個小組，著每組分別對篇章的某一方面進行比較。討論後由組代表進行匯報，教師作總結和補充。

（4）家課作業

教師在堂上講授，並與學生討論，然後給家課讓學生練習。

三・教學實例舉隅

1. 內容比較教學設計

梁啟超的〈最苦與最樂〉(中二)與〈敬業與樂業〉(中四)

教學目標：

認識梁啟超認為人生中最苦及最樂的事情。

活動

一、 教師先把全班學生分成四組，然後著其中一組在〈最苦與最樂〉一文中找什麼是最苦的事；另一組則負責找文中所說最樂的事；至於其餘兩組則在〈敬業與樂業〉一文中分別找出最苦與最樂的事。

二、 各組分別進行討論，每組各設文書及組代表一名，文書負責記錄，組代表則負責向全班同學報告。

三、 各組的組代表分別輪流向全班匯報，其他同學可在組代表報告後，進行詢問和討論。

四、 教師提問：「兩文分別所言的最苦與最樂的事情，是否有相通的地方？」是否可以互相補充說明？」教師邀請同學分析與說明。

五、 待同學發表意見後，教師加以總結及評講：
兩文所提到的最苦與最樂的事情，其實是有互通的地方，兩者可以互作解釋及補充。梁啟超認為不盡責、不工作是世上最苦的事情；而完成責任、敬業樂業，則是世上最快樂的事情。

教學目標二

認識議論文的內容結構特點。

活動

一、 教師仍把全班學生分為四組，其中兩組分析〈最苦與最樂〉的內容結構，以歸納出全文的結構大綱；至於另外兩組則分析〈敬業與樂業〉的內容結構，同時整理出全文的結構大綱。

二、 組代表分別報告兩文的內容綱要。

三、 教師從兩文的結構綱要歸納議論文的內容結構特點：

- 引言
- 論點一
  論據與論証
- 論點二、三、四……
  論據與論証
- 總結

四、 教師要求學生自行記下議論文的結構綱要，並著學生在下次作文課時，依此結構寫作一篇議論文(題目則由教師在作文課時公佈)。

2. 寫作技巧比較教學設計

朱自清的〈背影〉(中一)與琦君的〈媽媽的手〉(中二)

教學目標一

認識借親人的特徵來抒情的寫作技巧。

活動

一、 教師提問兩篇課文的題目是什麼？

二、 學生回答：〈背影〉及〈媽媽的手〉。

三、 教師著學生在課文中找一找「背影」及「媽媽的手」這兩個詞語在文中一共出現了多少次。

四、 學生回答：〈背影〉一文中出現了四次「背影」的字眼；而〈媽媽的手〉一文則出現了十二次「媽媽的手」的字眼。

五、 教師提問：「為何在課文中會多次出現這兩個字詞？」請同學發表意見和討論。

六、 教師聽過學生意見後，加以補充和評講：
兩文的主題都是描寫親人的慈愛和對親人的懷念，但兩文都不是泛泛而論，而是借親人的某些特徵(如父親的背影、母親的手)來作為切入點，加以仔細的描寫，以見親人的慈愛。如此，全文紮實而重心突顯，主題清楚明確，人物形象生動突出。

教學目標二

認識「時空交錯」的寫作特點。

活動

一、 教師提問：兩篇文章的主題是什麼。

二、 學生回答：記敘作者從前與親人一起的經歷，並抒發對他們的懷念與摯愛之情。

三、 教師把學生分成四組，著其中兩組分析〈背影〉一文的時間脈絡；而另外兩組則負責分析〈媽媽的手〉一文的時間脈絡。

四、 各組分別進行匯報。
〈背影〉：現在-->過去-->現在
〈媽媽的手〉：現在-->過去-->現在-->過去-->現在

五、 教師提問：「這是一種怎樣的寫作方法？這種寫法有什麼特點？」請同學發表意見及進行討論。

六、 教師總括學生的意見及作出評講：
兩篇課文在描寫及追述親人的往事時，通常都是運用交錯方式來寫作的，即現在與往昔的片段交錯出現，這就使今與昔產生了對比，加強了文章的感染力與真實感。

3. 文體比較教學設計

張恨水的〈霧之美〉(中一)與傅仇的〈早晨，好大的霧啊〉(中一)

教學目標一

認識新詩與散文的體裁特點。

活動

一、 教師提問：〈霧之美〉一文的主題思想是什麼？

二、 學生回答：〈霧之美〉一文主要是描寫重慶霧中景色的變化及作者由濃霧及霧散的所見所感。

三、 教師向學生提問：「〈早晨，好大的霧啊〉一詩主要描寫的是什麼？」

四、 學生回答：「〈早晨，好大的霧啊〉一詩主要是描寫伐木工人早上由濃霧至霧散的所見所感。」

五、 教師向學生提問兩篇課文的內容是否都有相似之處。

六、學生回答：「是，兩文主要都是描寫早上的霧景。」
七、教師提問：「兩篇課文既然內容相類，那麼主要的差異在何處？」
八、學生回答：「兩文主要差異在體裁和形式上。」
九、教師略加講解：
「〈霧之美〉是一篇文言文的散文；而〈早晨，好大的霧呵〉則是一首白話文的新詩。」
教師再著學生分組找出散文和新詩各自的體裁特徵。
十、每組學生在報告過後，教師則加以補充講解和作簡單的比較。

教學目標二
認識新詩與散文的風格特點。

活動
一、教師提問學生：「在這兩篇同是描寫霧景的課文中，所描寫的著重點與風格是否有所不同？」
二、學生回答：「〈霧之美〉一文較多客觀的景物描寫和形容；而〈早晨，好大的霧呵〉則較多描寫主觀的感受。」
三、教師加以補充和評講，並進而講述新詩與散文兩種文體的不同風格特點：
「新詩較著重感情和抒發；而散文則較重記敘與描寫。」
四、讓學生投票選出他們較喜愛那一篇。每位同學皆需投票，以舉手的形式進行。點票後，公佈結果。

4. 古今比較的教學設計

【宋史】的〈岳飛之少年時代〉(中一)與鄭子瑜的〈中山先生的習醫時代〉

教學目標一
認識文言、白話的差異。

活動
一、教師先著學生把〈岳飛之少年時代〉一文用白話文語譯出來。
二、教師提問學生：「原文與譯文在語言上有何差別？」
三、學生回答：「原文(文言文)較簡短和簡潔；而譯文(白話文)的句子則較詳盡與清晰。」
四、教師再著學生把〈岳飛之少年時代〉的譯文與〈中山先生的習醫時代〉進行語文上的比較，看看當中的差別。
五、學生回答：「兩者沒有多大的分別，都是較詳盡與容易理解。」
六、教師加以總結和講解：「文言文為古代漢語，語言較簡潔，而詞性多變，一字包含較多的意思。至於白話文則為我們現時通用的現代漢語，較接近口語，故文字較詳盡和容易理解。」

教學目標二
分析古人、今人在寫作人物傳記上的特色。

活動
一、教師把全班同學分成四組，並著其中兩組分別討論〈岳飛之少年時代〉
一文的各段大意和主旨；而另外兩組則分別討論〈中山先生的習醫時代〉
一文的段落大要和主旨(藉以見出兩文在取材和描寫人物上的特色)。
二、學生討論後，由組代表報告，其他同學亦可提出意見。
三、教師著學生分析兩篇課文在描寫人物上(亦即文章的選材與內容編排)的特色，比較兩文描寫人物的技巧和風格上的分別。
四、教師與學生自由討論。
五、教師最後作出總結及講解：
「兩文在記敘傳記人物時，都著意選取一些典型事例來描寫；此外，兩文都著重顯出偉人在少年時已有不凡的志氣與能力。可知古人和今人在寫作人物傳記的取向和特點上並沒有大的差別。」

5. 綜合比較教學設計

朱自清的〈春〉(中二)與思果的〈春至〉(中三)

教學目標一
使學生對兩篇課文在內容及技巧上有更深入的了解。

活動
教師將全班分成數個小組，就以下問題作出討論，並進行匯報：
一、兩篇課文在描寫春天的景物方面有何相同之處。
二、兩篇課文在描寫春天的景物方面有何相異之處。
三、兩篇課文各自運用了那些修辭手法來描寫春天的景色。
四、兩篇課文各自運用了那些寫作技巧來描寫春天的景色。
五、兩篇課文的主題思想相同嗎？請分別說出兩文的主旨。

教學目標二

使學生認識描寫文的寫作方法和特色。

活動

一、 著學生分別列出〈春〉及〈春至〉的課文結構表。

二、 著學生從中歸納描寫文的寫作要點和特色，教師補充和講解。

三、 著學生投票選出他們喜歡〈春〉或是〈春至〉，並舉出原因。

四、 著學生回家寫作一篇描寫景物的描寫文。

四・比較教學法的評價

1. 比較教學法的優點

訓練學生的分析思考能力

教師進行比較教學法，對課文作深入的分析與比較，勢必提供了不少的思考空間與機會予學生發揮他們的思維。因為學生對篇章進行比較的過程，需要運用已有的知識和各項分析推理的能力；因此比較教學法實可訓練學生的分析思考能力。

使學生能有系統的學習語文知識

在中文教學上應用比較教學法，使每篇課文能有機地聯繫起來，使學生所學習的語文知識變得更有系統和更有條理。這對學生建立整體性的語文能力有很大的助益。

激發學生的學習動機

由於比較教學是把多篇的課文和篇章並置來分析與研究，當中使學生可以思考的空間比單篇範文大得多，因此吸引學生學習的趣味性也增加了。此外，要求學生對數篇課文進行比較，對學生也是一個智力與學養的考驗，能更有效地激發學生學習的動機。

使學生學得求知的方法

我們現時所學得的知識，很多都是在運用比較與對照的方法中獲得的；進行比較教學，令學生習得比較的方法與要訣，使學生的能力內化，並使他們在日常生活中也能應用這種方法去求得知識，進行終身學習。

培養學生欣賞評鑒文學作品的能力

要養成一種欣賞品評藝術作品的能力，是必需要多看、多接觸以及有比較優劣的知識的。在中文課裏施行比較教學，能使學生學習到比較課文篇章的知識與要旨，培養了學生欣賞文學作品的能力。

2. 比較教學法的局限

時間的限制

要有效地進行比較教學，是不能急於求成的，因為當中涉及了多種智能的配合運用，學生是不能在短時間內掌握得好的，因此教師需要騰出更多的教學時間讓學生學習。但在教學時間緊逼的情況下，這似乎成了推行比較教學法的一個限制。

課程的限制

香港現時的中文科課程，仍是以單篇範文的教學模式為主，當中並不特別強調範文之間的互相比較，這就為比較教學造成了一定的制肘與阻礙。

學生方面的限制

香港的教育制度，歷來皆著重教師的灌輸，學生只顧拼命的記憶學科的有關知識，而較少去進行思考分析，因此他們大都養成了「學而不思」的習慣。而比較教學的模式，是需要學生運用大量的思考分析能力，學生可能因一時習慣不來，而對比較教學產生抗拒感。此外，要比較教學能成功進行，其中一個條件是要學生對所比較的課文有一定的認識；若學生未能把有關的課文掌握得好，要施行比較教學便有困難了。

教師方面的限制

在推行比較教學法時，教師若能有比較法的專業知識，當能事半功倍。但事實上：教師曾接受過有關的專業訓練者其實不多，使教師進行比較教學時未能完全得心應手、揮灑自如了。再說，現今的中文課程以單篇範文為主，教師若有心進行比較教學，勢必要在現時緊逼的課程中作出調整，影響了正常教學的進行。因此教師需要從中作出抉擇與取捨，相信這些……是比較教學的一個限制。

3. 教學建議

學生需對比較的課文有一定程度的認識

若要使比較教學能有效地進行，教師必需要把有關的課文教授得清楚明確，以使學生能對該課課文有一定程度的認識，藉此來為比較教學奠下基礎。學生對比較的課文有基本的認識，才能夠進行比較令則會使比較教學進行得事半功倍。

教師需有比較教學的基本訓練

身為教導者，教師若要有效進行比較教學，本身當需要有比較教學的基本訓練(例如比較文學的知識)，這樣方能進行比較、分析、綜合等思維能力，使比較教學達到最大的效益。

課程需作調整與配合

若要使比較教學能夠全面地推行，則需要在課程上作出調整與配合，以作指導及支援。因為若課程不能作出配合，則比較教學就能有效進行。但本港中學中國語文課程將以單元教學取代現時的單篇教學[14]，這就為比較教學的推行製造了有利的條件，令有心的教育工作者感到興奮。當中文科全面以單元教學作為教學的模式時，教師便能更容易全面地進行比較教學了。

評鑒方面亦需配合

若要全面推行比較教學，評鑒設計的方面亦需要加以調整和配合，以期能使比較教學發揮得更有系統、更有效率。例如在測驗與考試上，可以加入一些比較分析的題目，使學生加強範文與範文之間的聯繫與分析，達到學思並重的目的。

五・結語

比較教學法是一種強調學生靈活運用所學、主動思考分析、以及著重訓練學生語文能力的教學法。它能切合廿一世紀的教學模式，非常值得在中文教學上施行的。但是我們亦需留心在施行時遇到的種種限制，以免影響了教學效果。教師在設計比較教學時要多了解學生的情況、多思考各種實行的方法，更有效的發揮比較教學的功能，以提升學生的語文能力和分析能力。

注釋

1 周漢光：（1998）：《中學中國語文教學法》，修訂本。香港：中文大學出版社，頁280-282。

2 教育統籌委員會（1999.1）：《廿一世紀教育藍圖：教育制度檢討之「教育目標」諮詢文件》。

3 傅永安（1995）：《中學語文比較教學》。北京：教育科學出版社。前言，頁2。

4 傅永安認為「盡管比較的方法可以從不同角度分出若干種，但是最基本的類型、最基本的方法是"異中求同"和"同中求異"。」同注3，頁32。

5 傅永安認為比較教學的作用有十六點，分別是：求同辨異、辨清正誤、辨析優劣、揭示關係、防止混淆、篩選取捨、歸類分類、總結規律、激發興趣、開拓思路、抓住特徵、探明細微、克服難點、突出性格、揭示主題、及傳道育人。同注3，頁42-88。

6 傅永安提出語文比較教學是多元化、多方面的，不論是字、詞語、句子、段落、甚至是篇章，皆可以作出比較，以使學生有更佳的語文知識學習。同注3，頁89-103。

7 周漢光，同注1，頁55。

8 《論語・為政篇》，見楊伯峻譯注：《論語譯注》（香港：中華書局，1997年版），頁18。

9 黃新宇（1997）：〈比較教學法探析〉，《中學語文教學》1997年第五期，頁86。

10 傅永安，同注3，頁72-74。

11 傅永安認為通過比較，可以激發學習興趣，同注3，頁69-72。周漢光認為「多用比較與類推的方式，以闡釋教材的意義」，是使學生熱愛語文學習的原則之一。同注1，頁22-24。

12 有關比較教學法的種類型的分類法則和方法，由於各個研究者的研究角度和取向不月同，故此差異頗大，見仁見智。例如黃新宇認為比較教學法的種類可分為求同比較、求異比較、及相似比較三類，同註九，頁80-83。而傅永安則認為可從文章構成、文章內涵、比較的目的、比較的時間和空間、比較項多少、文體和體裁、教材使用、及比較方式八個方面來進行分類，同注3，頁89-170。至於本文的分類，則是筆者在參考以上資料後，自行編擬的。

13 傅永安，同注3，頁103-118。

14 傅永安也曾對文體和體裁的比較教學作出了討論，同注3，頁146-150。

15 傅永安，同注3，頁129-133。

16 傅永安認為「綜合比較是指比較項目較多，同時對教材某些方面進行求同和求異比較的教學活動和方法。這既是同時求同求異的多項比較，也是更為複雜的綜合比較。比起單項比較和多項比較來，容量大、項目多、求同求異齊備，適用於對作品進行從內容到形式的全面分析和評價。」同注3，頁143-144。

17 黃新宇，同注9，頁83-86。

18 傅永安，同注3，頁34-41。

19〈中文科改革重點：語文運用、聽講能力〉，《明報》，1999年1月9日。

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(Received: 13.2.01, accepted 12.3.01, revised 18.4.01)

Does General Studies Help Pupils Develop Their National Identity in HKSAR?

Lai Wah WONG YU

Abstract

In Hong Kong, various changes in education policy have taken place since the 1980's in response to the different impacts generated by globalization, the application of information technology and changes in political, economic and educational environments. During the transitional period, various education policies on curriculum reform were implemented for the preparation for the return of sovereignty to China. In 1996 General Studies, a new integrated subject, was introduced as one of the core subjects in the primary curriculum. It aims at preparing children for a comprehensive education in the course of the primary education. Children are guided to acquire basic knowledge related to the individual, family, society, science and technology and the natural world. General Studies also aims to equip children "with skills and attitudes and enable them to solve problems which they encounter now and in the future so that they can gain understanding of their world, develop positive attitudes and be ready to be good citizens". As Hong Kong was going to reintegrate with the People's Republic of China, in order to help pupils to have increased knowledge about China, the syllabus contents of Primary five and six were extended beyond Hong Kong to China and the world as a whole. This paper analyses the aims, objectives, contents and the implementation of the General Studies syllabus. The aim is to study whether the subject helps develop the national identity in Hong Kong Special Administrative Region of the People's Republic of China. The significance of this study is to provide suggestions to strengthen pupils' awareness of their Chinese national identity.

常識科能否培養學生認同中國人的身份?

自80年代以來，因應全球化、資訊科技的應用、政治、經濟和教育環境的轉變，香港推行不少教育改革。過渡期間，香港的課程亦作出不少改革。一九九六年開始常識科已成為香港的小學的共同核心課程中的一科。常識科不單培養兒童獲取知識，亦著重技能和正確的態度。目的是讓兒童學會如何解決問題，培養積極的態度，和做個良好的公民。因中國對香港恢復行使主權，常識科的課程選材亦由香港擴闊至中國和世界。本文分析常識科課程的目標、宗旨、內容和推行的情況，旨在研究常識科能否培養學生認同中國人的身份，並提出建議以增強學生對中國人的身份的醒覺。

In a democratic society, education policies are formulated and implemented for the good of its citizens. The Hong Kong Special Administrative Region Government has initiated a series of fundamental school reform and curriculum reform measures in response to the different impacts generated by globalization, the application of information technology and changes in political, economic and educational environments (Curriculum Development Council, 1999; Education Commission, 1999a, 1999b). During the transitional period, various education policies were implemented for the preparation for the return of sovereignty to China. An education policy in the area of curriculum, a new subject - General Studies, in the primary education was implemented in 1996. This paper aims to study whether General Studies helps to develop the national identity in Hong Kong Special Administrative Region of the People's Republic of China.

The Role of Education: A Cohesive State

At the societal level, the intention of policy makers is to use education to create or maintain a cohesive state society by means of a common culture or a common language. Economic nationalism had its origin in nation-state and its fiction of homogeneity. It stressed the need to create solidarity and cohesion in capitalist societies, and the need to create a 'common culture'. The notion of a common culture is the basis for social solidarity and the development of nation state (Brown, Halsey, Lauder & Wells, 1997). Green (1990, p. 309) stated, "The major impetus for the creation of national educational systems lay in the need to provide the state with trained administrators, engineers and military personnel; to spread dominant national cultures and inculcate popular ideologies of nationhood; and so to forge the political and cultural unity of burgeoning nation states and augment the ideological hegemony of their dominant classes". Thus the major role of education is to create a national culture and to provide personnel for bureaucratic organization and industry.

General Studies in the Primary Curriculum in Hong Kong

Hong Kong was a British Colony for about hundred and fifty years. Hong Kong was quite different from other British colonies: Hong Kong people accepted the reintegration with the People's Republic of China instead of being independent. After the signing of the Sino-British Joint Declaration in 1984, different measures were implemented for the preparation of the resumption of Chinese sovereignty over Hong Kong on 1st July 1997.

Hong Kong is a regional and international trading center, and is international renowned as one of the 'four Asian Dragons'. Hong Kong people are politically apathetic, especially to the return of sovereignty to a communist motherland. Education policies were introduced to help the pupils in Hong Kong to face the political change during the transition period and the new status of Hong Kong, as Special Administrative Region of China. There was an emphasis on civic education as a result. The Guidelines on Civic Education explicitly mentioned the transmission of knowledge about the current ideologies of the Government of the PRC, Chinese culture and Chinese history, as well as the development of the 'national identity and the patriotic spirit' (Education Department, 1996, p. 22). Through the permeation approach, students learn all these in different subjects in primary and secondary education. Different syllabuses were produced or revised, aiming at preparing students for their roles as future citizens of both Hong Kong Special Administrative Region and the People's Republic of China, e.g. the revision of existing subjects such as History and Geography in secondary education, and the introduction of new subjects such as Liberal Studies in secondary education, and General Studies in primary curriculum.

General Studies - Aims and objectives

The General Studies syllabus was published in 1994 and first implemented in September 1996 at all levels in most primary schools in Hong Kong. General Studies, along with Chinese, English and Mathematics, is one of the core subjects in primary education. It integrated the subjects of Primary Social Studies, Primary Science and Health Education, which were taught as separate subjects in primary schools for years and aims at preparing children for a comprehensive education in the course of primary education. Children are guided to acquire basic knowledge related to the individual, family, society, science and technology and the natural world. There are four major content areas, namely 'Healthy Living', 'Living Environment', 'Natural World' and 'Science and Technology' (Curriculum Development Council, 1994). Besides equipping children with the 'necessary knowledge', General Studies also aims to equip children "with skills and attitudes and enable them to solve problems which they encounter now and in the future so that they can gain understanding of their world, develop positive attitudes and be ready to be good citizens" (Curriculum Development Council, 1994, p. 8). Furthermore, the systematic integration of related topics in Primary Social Studies, Primary Science and Health Education " allows children to look at issues from different perspective,

hence making pupils' learning experiences more holistic. Cross-curricular themes can easily be encompassed within the new integrated subject, General Studies (Curriculum Development Council, 1994).

As Hong Kong was going to reintegrate with the People's Republic of China, in order to help pupils to have increased knowledge about China, the syllabus contents of Primary five and six were extended beyond Hong Kong to China and the world as a whole. Topics such as 'the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region and the mainland of China: Geography and History' and 'the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region and the mainland of China: Political and Economic Relationships' were included. Some changes were made in the syllabus in 1997 as Hong Kong returned to China on 1st July 1997. These included names of government departments, chief government officials, etc. The term, 'China', was changed to 'mainland China' (Curriculum Development Council, 1997). In general, the return of sovereignty of Hong Kong to China and the calls for integrated curriculum from the academic arena accounted for the major changes in the General Studies syllabus.

Implementation

Before the implementation of the new syllabus for General Studies, publishers were encouraged to produce textbooks for this new subject. Several sets of textbooks, both in Chinese and in English, were available in the market as a result. Seminars and workshops were organized by the Education Department or co- sponsored with the Hong Kong Institute of Education in order to introduce to primary school teachers about the aims, objectives, teaching strategies and contents of General Studies. Teaching kits on various topics, especially about China, which were produced by the Education Department and some voluntary organizations, were sent to each primary school. Educational television programmes were also revised or produced according to the new syllabus.

Since September 1996, General Studies has been implemented in all levels of over ninety per cent of the primary schools in Hong Kong. Approximately a hundred and sixty teaching periods are allocated to General Studies in each academic year at each level, i.e. five periods per week including one for educational television programmes.

Critic: Intention and Implementation

The following will include the analysis of the aims and objectives, contents and the implementation of General Studies in order to study whether the introduction of such a new subject in the primary education helps to develop the national identity in Hong Kong, Special Administrative Region of the People's Republic of China.

A Cohesive State: National Identity

Aims and objectives

The General Studies Syllabus 1994 was prepared in the transition period for the preparation of Hong Kong's reunification with China. Therefore, efforts were made to strength the Chinese national identity among Hong Kong students in order to create a cohesive state. In the General Studies, it was stated that children are helped to develop "concern for the local community, home country and the world" (Curriculum Development Council, 1994, p. 8). As Tan (1997, p. 308) commented, "care was taken to portray the PRC in a more favourable light in textbooks and syllabuses'. In order to prepare pupils for their status as citizens of China, the aim of General Studies should explicitly state the development of our children to be good citizens of Hong Kong and the People's Republic of China. National identity is an essential element of the civic education but it should be learned with some basic concepts, such as human rights, democracy, globalization and critical thinking (Leung, 1998) so that pupils are prepared to become rational and responsible citizens.

In the 1980 Social Studies syllabus, knowledge, skills and attitudes and social participation were advocated as 'the four essential components' to form the source of instructional objectives for the whole course, each carrying the same weight in shaping young people into mature, co-operative and responsible members of the community (Curriculum Development Committee, 1980, p. 2). It was suggested that "pupils' early involvement in community activities is considered essential to the promotion of social awareness and

understanding" (Curriculum Development Committee, 1980, p. 4). The Guide to the Primary Curriculum (the Curriculum Development Council, 1993) also stated "the goals of education are to ... enable them (children) ... to live fully as balanced and well-informed individuals as well as useful and responsible citizens". In the General Studies syllabus, 'social participation' did not appear in the 'Introduction' or the 'Objectives' section. There are only a few sentences in the content section, which touch upon the idea of social participation. If General Studies is to foster civic education among "young people so that they posses the knowledge, skills, and value necessary for active participation in society" (Ross, 1997, p. 4), it is necessary to include social participation explicitly both in the introduction and the content sections of the syllabus. In this way, we can promote children's "awareness of what is going on outside the classroom..." and they "are better prepared for giving their contribution to the resolution on social issues when need arises" (Curriculum Development Committee, 1980, p. 4) in HKSAR and mainland China.

Content: The China elements

Though some suggested that school should transmit a common culture by means a common curriculum (UK), Lawton (1996) suggested that the curriculum should be based on a justifiable selection from culture. In the years prior to the return of sovereignty to China in 1997, there was increasing demand from the public for helping our pupils understand our country through the formal and informal curriculum. Therefore, in the General Studies syllabus, there was greater coverage of China. It covers the geography and history of China, and the political and economic relationship between Hong Kong Special Administrative Region and China. All these are to be learned in primary five and primary six, the last two years of the six-year primary education. In order to strengthen the Chinese national identity and develop the sense of belonging to our motherland, some simple and basic ideas concerning the 'relationship between the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region and the mainland of China' should be introduced to pupils from kindergarten to junior primary level. For example, in primary one in the area of the study, 'Living Environment', besides 'My Family', 'Our School' and 'Parks', 'My Country' should be included. In this way, children are helped to develop their awareness of their Chinese national identity. They should further the study of China in other levels of the primary education in a spiral approach.

Different from the 1980 Social Studies syllabus, the relationship between Hong Kong and China was explicitly spelt out in the General Studies Syllabus. It covers mainly the economic, historical and political aspects, but the cultural aspect was deleted from the Social Studies syllabus. Nothing is mentioned about the growth and development of the Chinese nation and the inventions of ancient China such as the compass, gunpowder and printing, nor is there any reference to the dissemination of the Chinese culture to the West in early years such as the Silk Route, the Mongolian conquest of the West countries and Cheng Ho's naval expedition. In order to promote the Chinese national identity, pupils must know more about their country, especially the ancient history and major inventions of China, the traditional Chinese culture and values in order to take pride in the Chinese heritage and the Chinese culture, just as the subject, History is particularly prominent in the national curriculum in Britain in order to reassert national identity in the face of an increasing globalized economy and weakened nation states (Brown et al, 1997). This is also the answer to those who argued that teachers and pupils might not identify themselves with the ideology of the Communist Government of mainland China: cultural identity should be promoted among the pupils. Furthermore, there is no contradiction with the emphasis of Hong Kong Identity, and the learning of local history and culture. It is because a post-modern society typically links the local and the global, there is a rediscovery of territorial identity, local traditions, local histories, as well as nationalism (Kuman, 1997). Therefore, pupils should be helped to develop their HKSAR identity and also the Chinese national identity.

Rights and responsibilities of the citizens

In the General Studies syllabus, 'communication between the government and the people' with other topics such as, 'Functions of government', 'Structure of the HKSAR government' and 'How HKSAR is governed' were stated in the unit 'Government of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region'. Nothing is mentioned explicitly about the rights and responsibilities of citizens. If General Studies is supposed to be the chief avenue of promoting civic education in primary education and there is a need to promote

citizenship of the HKSAR and the motherland, the learning of rights and responsibility of a citizen is indispensable.

Implementation - teacher preparation

The extent of success of an education policy depends greatly on teachers who are directly involved in its implementation. Teacher education programmes should ensure that all teachers concerned are informed and educated about the new curriculum and they should engage teachers in constructing and redefining their own practice if necessary, and equip teachers with suitable knowledge and necessary skills. In the first year when General Studies was implemented, in-service teacher education courses, workshop and seminars were conducted by the Education Department and the Hong Kong Institute of Education. Only one or two teachers from each school could attend these programmes at a time. In this way, the preparation of practising teachers for the implementation of the new subject was done through the 'key person' system.

No in-school training of General Studies teachers using a 'key person' system was reported by any practising teachers in the study by So, Cheng, Leung & Wong (1999). They also claimed that they preferred to have enrichment training courses on subject knowledge, teaching strategies and teaching activities in order to improve their teaching, as they did not have adequate content knowledge of the political structure of Hong Kong, the geography and political structure of China. In a previous study (Wong, 1997), student teachers also stated the same worries. Most of them did not learn all these in their primary, secondary education or teacher education. They were not used to discussing political issues in schools or in classrooms because under the British rule, it was clearly stated in the Education Ordinance that the teaching of politics was forbidden in school, which was abolished after the June 4th event in 1989. In order to help pupils to develop their Chinese nationality, the Education Department should help teachers to develop positive attitudes, acquire adequate content knowledge of China and the mastery of appropriate teaching strategies - the necessary complementary input (Levin & Kelley, 1997) to make the teaching and learning of the China elements effective. By the depoliticization and trivialization of civic education in schools, not only teachers and principals of secondary schools are complaining about the lack of resources and time or underscoring the importance of open examination (Lee & Leung, 1999), teachers in primary schools are in a similar situation: drilling students for the Academic Aptitude Test for the allocation of Secondary One places. Thus, Hargreaves (1997) commented that teachers should be supported, encouraged and provided with newly structured opportunities to make improvement of their own - professional empowerrment. Under the leadership of the principal, school culture should be changed: beliefs, values and behaviour of the teachers which are the key elements in the success of the new programme. They have to define their vision, mission and plan for the implementation (Lawton, 1996). School-based staff development programmes, experience-sharing sessions and educational exchange programmes may be jointly organized by the school, the Education Department or teacher training institutes. Not only should there be a sound philosophy and shared commitment among teachers and administrators (Martinello & Cook, 1994) in a school, the school culture should also be shared by the pupils and supported by their parents (Lawton, 1996).

Conclusion

Education policies are intended to promote 'good life and specific value systems'. In democratic societies, these values are under constant scrutiny and contestation. Effects of education can be seen in the lives of individuals: their access to the good life and also on the values to which they are introduced through education and socialization. In Hong Kong, various changes in education policy have occurred since 1984. Pupils are provided with different opportunities to be acquainted with mainland China and to develop their Chinese national identity.

There was smooth unification with China since 1997. The return of sovereignty of Hong Kong to China has served as an example for Macau and Taiwan. Therefore, the PRC Government has been very conscious not to interfere with the domestic affairs in Hong Kong Special Administrative Region. Considerable autonomy is promised; the 'One country, two systems' policy is also implemented in education. Recently, there has been different programmes or proposals on the reform of the whole education system in Hong Kong, including pre-school education, primary education, secondary and tertiary education and life long education. The focus is mainly on the school curriculum, the quality of teaching and

learning and IT education. The learning of mainland China in different aspects in General Studies helps pupils to know more about their motherland and pave the way for the development of their national identity.

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(Received: 23.6.00, accepted: 29.9.00, revised: 2.4.01)

The Issues of Developmentally Appropriate Curriculum: Relevance and Application to the Early Childhood Curriculum in Hong Kong

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In early childhood education (ECE), curriculum encompasses prevailing theories, approaches and models. Curriculum is planned appropriately based on the knowledge of theory and research about how children develop and learn, with special attention given to individual children's needs and interests in relation to program goals. In this paper, focusing on ECE, I discuss the underlying rationale, principles and meaning of developmentally appropriate curriculum (DAC) as developed by the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) in the United States in 1987. Drawing from relevant literature, I discuss issues of relevance, and application related to DAC with specific reference to ECE experience in Hong Kong.

發展適切課程的探討：對香港幼兒教育課程的相關和應用

幼兒教育課程包括了不少流行的理論、方法與模式。適切的課程是基於幼兒理論、研究與設計，而課程目標能照顧兒童的身心發展、學習、個別需要和興趣。本文旨在探討由國際幼兒教育協會(NAEYC)所倡議的發展適切幼兒課程之理念、原則和意義。作者引用相關文獻資料，引用香港之實例來討論發展適切課程的相關和應用。

Developmentally Appropriate Curriculum

In terms of Doriscoll and Nagel (1999), developmentally appropriate curriculum (or practice) means curriculum that recognizes and appreciates children's levels of development, growth, and interest. DAC is curriculum that accommodates a child's physical, emotional, social, and cognitive readiness. DAC developed in response to educational issues that evolved in the mid-1980s in the United States. During this time, the "earlier is better" ideology led to the increased establishment of academic ECE programs in the United States. Simultaneously, there were two parallel trends sweeping the field of ECE: the increased emphasis on formal instruction with a press for standardized accountability, and the increase in demand from families for greater source of out-of-home childcare (Bredekamp & Copple, 1987). The NAEYC understood the needs for education to respond to society's changing forces. To support its position for ECE program that are "play-based", and to deal with the prevailing needs, the NAEYC produced two editions of the "*Developmentally Appropriate Practice in Early Childhood Education Programs Serving Children from Birth through Age 8*" (Brekekamp, 1987; Bredekamp & Copple, 1997).

The two DAP documents have become recommended resources for early childhood educators, practitioners and parents to guide decision-making about educational programs. According to Bredekamp and Copple (1997), there are three dimensions to the concept of developmental appropriateness: age, individual growth patterns, and cultural factors. *Age appropriateness* draws on the theories of those who posit universal stages of human development, particularly as applied

to the first eight years of life. *Individual and cultural appropriateness* takes into account each child's own growth patterns, personality, learning styles, family background, and culture. To guide users' decisions about practice, Bredekamp and Copple (1997) have delineated twelve interrelated principles related to the scopes of: whole child education, values of social and cultural influences to children's learning, values of play-based approach to children's learning, children's experiential learning, individual differences to learning, age appropriateness to learning and scaffolding effect to learning. In addition, in order to inform educators and practitioners of professional ECE practice, Bredekamp and Copple (1997) have further addressed five interrelated basic guidelines covering the areas of: creating a caring community of learners, teaching to enhance development, constructing appropriate curriculum, assessing children's learning and development, establishing reciprocal relationships with families.

DAC focuses on whole child development and the child's interactions with adults in appropriate environments. With recognition and appreciation of children's levels of development, growth, abilities and interest, DAC has been adopted in some ECE settings in the United States and Canada. Unfortunately, few early childhood education classrooms actually exemplify DAC-as little as one-third to one-fifth of the programs studied (Dunn & Kontos, 1997). This seems to be the case in settings serving both preschool-age children and children ages five through eight. Many researchers and educators continue to debate its relevance to ECE. Based on relevant literature, I elucidate the issues of DAC's relevance below.

Issues of DAC's Relevance in ECE

Many ECE professionals have highly recommended DAC as an appropriate curriculum for young children (Bredekamp & Copple, 1997) because of its focus on: ***experience-driven education, developmental theories, child-centered curriculum, play-based approach, teacher-family-support, and environment.*** The DAC"s emphasis on children's meaningful learning experience in early childhood is rooted in the ***experience-driven*** thinking of Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Froebel, Montessori and Dewey (1938). Dewey (1902, 1938, 1944) sees experience as the basis of education, and views education, experience and life as intertwined. Dewey (1938) believes that children can learn from their past-present-future experience particularly in early childhood (Froebel, Montessori, in Essa, 1999). Since every child's experience lives on in further experience in learning, DAC values children's lived experience.

With special emphasis on the age appropriateness and individual appropriateness, the underlying principles of DAC are highly consistent with the following ***developmental theories***. The ***maturational theory*** of Gesell is the key foundation stone of DAC, because it stresses that development and intelligence are determined at birth and that specific skills occur at predictable stages in a particular order. Hence, environment has little influence over early growth and development. Besides, Piaget's constructivist theory has influenced DAC significantly as it highlights that intelligence is adaptation to the environment and thinking is qualitatively different at each stage: sensorimotor (0-2 years), preoperational (2-7 years), concrete operations (7-11) and formal operations (11-15). Infants and toddlers learn through movement and the sense, preschoolers use symbols to organize ideas, and school-agers acquire logical structures of thought. Gardner's ***multiple intelligence theory*** is referred to by DAC too. Moreover, DAC has considered the value of the ***psychosocial theory*** of Eriskson. It identifies needs of children at different ages/stages, beginning with a need for trust for infants, autonomy for toddlers, initiative for preschoolers, and industry for school-age children and highlights the importance of social interaction in development. In addition, DAC has adopted strategies in the ***behavioural theory*** of Skinner to promote children's learning. It states that environment is important in shaping all aspects of behavior and consistent positive reinforcement ensure that behavior will be repeated. Furthermore, the ***sociohistory theory*** of Vygotsky is accepted in DAC's principles. Vygotsky believes that social and historic forces shape intellectual ability and language is a primary tool for conveying society's values. And he highlights the scaffolding effect from adults on assisting children's learning in their zone of proximal development. In addition, based on Maslow's ***theory of humanism***, DAC always concern itself with children's needs. It believes that humans are motivated by fulfilling certain needs: physiological and social-emotional needs. Finally, DAC emphasizes the influence of social interaction in learning through imitation as advocated in the ***social learning theory*** by Bandura.

Thirdly, grounded in the thinking of Rousseau, Peataloozzi, Froebel, Rudolf and Dewey in child-centered education, DAC focuses upon the ***child-centered curriculum***. In DAC children become the primary source of curriculum (Hart, Burts & Charlesworth, 1997). Curriculum becomes the course of study with real and attainable goals met in school and these goals are to be mastered by students with concern for students' interests and active experience (Dewey, 1902). Based on Dewey's (1902, 1938) experience-based curriculum, DAC has recommended the *integrated curriculum* to enhance children's meaningful and joyful learning in well connected subject-matter (Miller, 1993; Drake, 1993; Krogh, 1995). In DAC, *assessment* is only a process of identifying individual child's development and needs accompanied with parents' concern rather than as a tool to assess children's academic performance. In the Hyson, Hirsh-Pasek, and Rescorla study (1990), preschool children enrolled in child-initated programs displayed lower levels of test anxiety than those enrolled in academic programs. Preschool and kindergarten children in child-centered classrooms had higher expectations for their own success, were less dependent on adult permission and approval, and were more willing to attempt challenging academic tasks. Also, children in appropriate classrooms had more positive attitudes about school. Moreover, classrooms characterized by child initiation appear to facilitate children's creative development. Children in appropriate classrooms exhibited a better performance than children in academically oriented classrooms in terms of divergent thinking (Hirsh-Pasek, Hyson & Rescorla, 1990; Hyson, Hirsh-Pasek & Rescorla, 1990); language development and verbal skills (Marcon, 1992); receptive language (Dunn, Beach & Konos 1994); reading and mathematics achievement scores (Sherman & Mueller, 1996). DAC can foster children's growth across developmental domains (Hart, Burts & Charlesworth, 1997). Thus, children become active and self-initiated learners in "learning and living" (Dewey, 1902, 1938).

Fourthly, being influenced by the thoughts of Froebel, Montessori and Piaget in children's free play, DAC has emphasized ***play-based approach*** because play by young children is an effective vehicle for promoting learning (Bredekamp & Copple, 1997). Sharing the same view of Spodek (1986) and Maxim (1989), DAC has considered play as the essential ingredient, the tool by which children learn communication (Vygotsky, 1978), socialization (Bandura, 1977), learning about the world around them (Piaget, 1952), understand themselves and others (Piaget, 1952; Vygotsky, 1978), and practice some of the skills they will use in the future (Hartley, 1971). Furthermore, the play-based practices enhance children's development and facilitate learning. Strong evidence has showed that kindergarten children exhibited lower levels of stress in the classroom when they were enrolled in developmentally appropriate programs (Burts et al. 1992). Consistent with the work on stress, beneficial effects were observed children's motivation in developmentally appropriate environments as opposed to inappropriate environments (Stipek et al. 1995).

Fifthly, DAC has encouraged collaborative ***teacher-family support*** to children. During early childhood, children are largely dependent on their families for identity, security, and care. Good communication and rapport between families and teachers help build mutual understanding and guidance, and provide greater consistency for children (Bredekamp, 1987). Actually, parents can attain the need of the mature adult in the stage of generativity as stated in Erikson's psychosocial theory.

Finally, creating interactive, stimulating, healthy and safe learning ***environments*** for children is an essential component of DAC (Bredekamp & Copple, 1997). This falls into Dewey's (1938) thinking on experience. Dewey (1938) emphasizes that physical and social environment can shape one's actual experience. In the experiential continuum, there exists human *interaction* and *situation* [environment] (Dewey, 1938). Thus, appropriate environments can foster and enhance children's learning in language (Vygotsky, 1978), culture (Vygotsky, 1978), social skills (Piaget, 1952; Vygotsky, 1978; Bandura, 1977), motor skills (Gallahu, 1995); cognitive thinking (Piaget, 1952; Vygotsky, 1978). It is a caring community for children to learn under the support and guidance of teachers and parents (Bredekamp, 1997).

Although DAC is currently enjoying wider acceptance because it is beneficial to children's emotional well-being which is an important prerequisite to intrinsic motivation and optimal learning; and cognitive development, as well as its relevant theory-based beliefs as mentioned above, some researchers are still doubtful about DAC's relevance in raising questions on ***developmental theory, multicultural sensitivity, curriculum*** and ***teachers***. First, accompanied with Bloch's (1991), Loureno's and Machado's (1996) criticism on the overly developmental framework in DAP, Spodek and Saracho (1994) argue that "Developmental theory and

educational theory differ significantly. One can inform the other, but one cannot be derived from the other" (p. 111). Developmental theories can be a "resource" for early childhood curricula, but not a "source" (Spokek, 1973), since developmental theories ignore the individual, cultural, and classroom contributions to development (Ramsey, 1987). Evidence on the long-term effects of early childhood programs questions the impact of ECE on the developmental processes (Spodek & Saracho, 1994). Bloch (1991) further criticizes that a prevalence of reliance on traditional development theories limited educators' and practitioners' frames of reference to the typical "normed" mainstream population in ECE. Undoubtedly, educational theories in motivation, practice, and class management etc. are vital in a teaching and learning process because they guide teachers how to teach effectively. Finally, DAC has excluded the important influences of gender, politics, culture; and history on children's learning (Graue, 1992; Stoot & Bowman, 1996).

Secondly, according to Enusook (1998), DAC lacks ***multicultural sensitivity***. DAC does not meet the needs of culturally diverse populations, thus perpetuating social inequity to the advantage of the dominant classes (Lubeck, 1994). DAC is heavily biased toward European American middle-class values (Jipson, 1991; O'Loughlin, 1992). Phillips (1988) emphasizes that "we must examine the values and beliefs that underlie child rearing practices to figure out how to make our classroom like our home, where children have learned to be powerful. And then we must help our children transfer their power into another cultural setting" (p. 47). Thus, children need to learn cultural knowledge in preschools and homes (Spodek & Saracho, 1994). In the multi-cultural community, young children need to receive multi-cultural education which embodies a commitment to equity, sensitivity and empowerment (Whaley & Swadener, 1990).

Thirdly, Spodek and Saracho (1994) argue that educators need to separate the ***curriculum*** content of education (what we teach) from the process of education (how we teach) and only teachers can know how to select appropriate contents, from the cultural and educational perspectives, not only from children's developmental capability. The rigid DAC guidelines may limit children's choices and opinions in learning, as well as teachers' teaching autonomy in curriculum development (Varga, 1997) because teachers themselves are curriculum planners (Connelly & Clandinin, 1988). Besides, Jipson (1991) argues that one set of curriculum guidelines cannot effectively summarize the needs of all children. As a general child-centered curriculum, DAC has not considered some unchangeable physical environment in preschools in different districts, for example; limited space in classrooms and outdoor playgrounds, various designs in school setting as influenced by culture and religions, which will impede the practice (Varga, 1997) to a certain extent.

Finally, DAC has placed too much emphasis on and know ledge to teachers, and how can teachers fulfill their tasks and understand children's needs just from the prescribed guidelines (Jipson, 1991). In the "real teaching world", most school administrators are the decision-makers in curriculum. Teachers have no choices. DAC has ignored this point. Teachers are not the only experts in classrooms (Delpit, 1988). Teachers really need adequate SUPPORT and CARE.

Putting theory into practice is a challenging continuous process. Issues on DAC's application have already aroused ECE professionals' concern for many years. I discuss the issues below with illustrations from the Hong Kong experience.

Issues of DAC's Application in Hong Kong ECE

In the application (blending theories into practice) of DAC in ECE, many issues have been evoked. As a way to discuss these issues, I draw on Schwab's (1973) four commonplaces of curriculum: ***subject matter, learner, teacher and milieu***. In preschools, ***subject matter*** is usually decided by principals and educational authorities based on the educational guidelines of the countries/regions. In Hong Kong, most kindergartens have adopted the "commercially prescribed curriculum" because of the convenient accessibility, practitioners' limited capability in developing appropriate curriculum, teachers' and parents' high expectations on children' academic performance, and the laissez-faire government policy on ECE (Opper, 1993). Thus, a teacher-centered approach, didactic teaching strategies, rote-learning, "repetitive-mechanical-drilling exercises and narrow-focused learning experience have dominated the curriculum (Opper, 1993; Hong Kong Education Department, 2000). Also, the emphasis on early academics in preschools has impeded DAC's application significantly (Bredekamp, 1987), with children pressured "too much, too fast and too soon"(Elkind, 1987). As indicated in the Education

Commission's (2000) education reform consultation document, in the transition period of adopting DAC, there is a need for additional "time" and "opportunities" for change, and adequate provision for curriculum resources and professional support from ECE consultants, Education Department, staff from teacher training institutes. This change will be accompanied with modification and flexibility in curriculum (Gullo, 1992) catering for children's individual needs. Besides, educators and practitioners may encounter difficulties when incorporating DAC's principles in their currently adopted curriculum approaches such as: High Scope, Reggio Emilia and Bank Street etc. Finally, there are obstacles coping with the inappropriate multi-cultural practice such as, the large number of young immigrants from Mainland China entering into Hong Kong. However, the advocacy of school-based ECE curriculum (Skilbeck, 1984), particularly with the successful application on the Quality Education Fund since 1998 may solve some application and curriculum issues, and lead to a more appropriate DAC in preschools.

Secondly, young ***learners*** are the central focus of education. According to Newberger (1997), currently, most parents and caregivers who push children too hard can do much damage to children's development. Children become "knowledge receivers" under the pressure of examinations particularly in Hong Kong (Opper, 1993). Children lose interest in learning, experience failure, and are unable to think independently (Eliason & Jenkis, 1999). Most young children's capacity, interests, potentials and experiences have not been considered deliberately in curriculum planning in Hong Kong. Adults first need to accept DAC"s principles and provide more support and opportunities for children to have active involvement in making appropriate curriculum, and to share their opinions, experience and feelings as active learners (Bredekamp and Copple, 1997) and "protagonists".

Thirdly, ***teachers*** are the heart of education, the planners of curriculum (Connelly & Clandinin, 1988), the key to curriculum reform (Education Commission, 2000), and the multiple perspective-takers in decision making (Eunsook, 1998). Teachers play multiple roles as facilitators, partners, planners and learners in helping children construct their knowledge and understanding (Charlesworth et al., 1993). In DAC, teachers are expected to have a strong foundation of knowledge of child development (Snider & Fu, 1990). However, the question remains (Spodek & Saracho, 1994): *Are the teachers well equipped to be more professional than in the past?* At present, only around 79.3% of preschool teachers have been trained in Hong Kong (OMEP-Hong Kong, 1999). Without adequate training in child-centered, experience-driven and developmentally appropriate curriculum, teachers confront many difficulties in adopting DAC, especially in Hong Kong (Opper, 1993; OMEP-HK, 1999). Based on the author's observation of in-service kindergarten teachers' teaching practices in Hong Kong, in line with the findings of Oakes and Caruso (1990), kindergarten teachers rarely engaged in strategies consistent with developmentally appropriate practice. The author noted a prevalence of didactic practices in Hong Kong kindergartens. The situation is so worse that not many kindergarten teachers seem to know what appropriate practice is and receive limited assistance in its implementation. Training is the main vehicle in improving quality in education (Powell & Dunn, 1990). According to Snider and Fu (1990), teachers with greater knowledge of developmentally appropriate practice had academic training in early childhood education and child development as well as breadth in the content of that training. However, most preschool and kindergarten teachers are at secondary level with inadequate knowledge of DAC. Thus, to impose this "whole-child-experience-based education" in preschools, teachers need to be well informed and "retrained". Early childhood teacher training institutes need to strengthen their training program in the breadth of DAC and supervised practical experience. In attaining *personal practical knowledge* (Connelly & Clandinin, 1988), teachers can relate teaching with their personal experience as a vehicle to make future improvement (Connelly & Clandinin, 1988) through reflection (Schon, 1991). Using a personal metaphor and drawing on their own experience, teachers may have the potentials to shift the role from "director of a film" in teacher-centered curriculum to "conductor of an orchestra" in child-centered curriculum.

Fourthly, ***milieu*** is the educational context that is considered in curriculum (Schwab, 1973). Under the pressure of examination-oriented education system like Hong Kong, and in order to please parents' expectations, most kindergartens are inclined to emphasize academic-oriented curriculum (Education Department, 2000). Parents of young children in Hong Kong appear to be more concerned than teachers about teaching children to count, read, and write and to be less concerned about promoting independence or positive self-concept. In Hong Kong, parents who endorse teacher-

directed, didactic approached tend to choose academic early childhood programs for their children, and vice versa. Thus, parents select early childhood programs that are consistent with their educational beliefs (Rescorla et al. 1990; Stipek et al. 1992). Besides, appropriate learning environments provided by teachers can promote children's learning (Morrow, 1990). However, physical environment is seriously limited in Hong Kong, which has hampered children's learning through social interactions and plays. Currently, the world is undergoing fundamental economic, technological, social, political and cultural changes (Education Commission, 2000). It is imperative that curriculum keeps pace with the times and be responsive to the needs of individual learners based on the real "situation" (Dewey, 1938). Currently, with regard to DAC's application in ECE, the following major unsolved impediments need to be highlighted: the examination-oriented educational system, multi-cultural society, ever-changing social structures, transition from kindergarten to elementary level, parents' support and collaboration, teachers' professionalism, and government's support. To adopt a new curriculum reform like DAC, the community and the learners themselves need to make contributions (Education Commission, 2000).

Conclusion

Developmentally appropriate curriculum is based on knowledge about how children develop and learn. DAC means that teachers recognize children's changing capacities, and children having the capacity for changes (Garbarino, 1989). Respecting children's unique developing abilities, teachers approach children from where they are, not from where they think children ought to do when designing child-centered, experience-driven appropriate and educative learning experience in preschools. The review of the relevance of DAC has shown that DAC seems relevant in ECE for fostering children's healthy and balanced development in a positive classroom climate although some criticisms have been raised. Taken together the research favors DAC, child-initiated environments and learning experiences are associated with higher levels of cognitive functioning. Developmentally appropriate curriculum practices are not the norm in early childhood programs. They play an important role in providing practicable and objective guidelines for early childhood teachers to plan their curriculum by blending the early childhood theories into daily practice. As far as the issues on DAC's application are concerned, they may cover the scopes of subject matter, learner, teacher and milieu. The Hong Kong experiences on key application issues consist of the highly academic-oriented subject matter; a neglect of children's learning rights on total education; inadequate early childhood teachers' knowledge and training in DAC; and pressure from an examination-dominating education system and the Government's inertia to accept early childhood in the fully subsidized foundation education. In conclusion, the teacher is viewed as the most important curriculum changing agent in the global education paradigm. The role of the teacher needs to diverge from "transmitter of knowledge" (Miller, 1985) to "curriculum maker" (Connelly & Clandinin, 1988) and "self-directed learner" (Diamond & Mullen, 1999), particularly in applying the theories of developmentally appropriate curriculum into classroom practice.

Acknowledgements:

The author would like to express his most sincerest thanks to Professor Michael Connelly for his spiritual support during his Ed.D residency studies in the OISE/UT when writing this paper. Also, special thanks are extended to Ms. Beth Veale for her patience and professional advice in reading the first draft of this paper.

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(Received: 9.9.00, accepted: 16.10.00, revised: 31.3.01)

數碼錄像短片資源庫與資訊科技教學

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為配合香港政府積極推行的資訊科技教育政策，教育工作者正努力發展不同的方案，應用資訊科技改善教學。本文介紹專為小學常識科而設的數碼錄像短片資源庫，探討短片如何協助教師在教學應用資訊科技。文章首先討論推行是項計劃的目標及成果，然後就使用者的問卷調查所得，歸納意見，討論如何改善資源庫的使用介面和怎樣增潤短片的內容。文章進一步討論研究的啟示：錄像短片在教學上的應用及教師在發展數碼錄像短片資源庫的角色。

（鍵詞：數碼錄像短片資源庫，資訊科技教學，常識科）

Information Technology in Learning and Teaching: Digital Video Clip Resources Bank

In respond to the Government's policy of using Information Technology (IT) in education, various approaches are attempted by educators to enhance the effectiveness of using IT in learning and teaching. This article describes a resources bank of digital video clips, which is especially designed for General Studies in Hong Kong primary curriculum, and explains how digital video clips can assist teaching in classrooms. It starts with objectives and outcomes of the project, which followed by a discussion of the findings from a survey conducted with users. Based on the users' opinion, ways of improving the interface and content will be discussed. The article further discussed the implications inferred by the result. They are the use of digital video clips in teaching and learning, and the roles of teachers in the further development of the resources bank of digital video clips.

(Key words: resources bank of digital video clips, information technology in learning & teaching, General Studies)

一、引言

香港特別行政區首長董建華先生於一九九七年發表的第一份施政報告，宣佈推行一套為期五年的策略，積極推廣資訊科技教育，希望藉此彰顯「學」與「教」的效能。學校教師、行政人員、教育署官員及各領域教育工作者均積極回應此教改方向，紛紛探討各項應用方案，致力將資訊科技有效地應用在學與教的各個範疇。但究竟如何協助教師結合資訊科技於教學工作呢？著實是一項富挑戰性的嘗試。江紹祥及潘世榮(2000)和Law, Yuen, Ki, Li & Lee (1999)均指出教師欠缺應用資訊科技的經驗以及教材支援不足，是學校發展資訊科技教育的障礙。若教師培訓能兼顧資訊科技知識及教學應用的視野和方法，則培訓應可促進教師將資訊科技融入日常教學工作。但是運用資訊科技改善教學素質的另一項條件，是教師必須獲得充足的資訊科技教材的支援(江紹祥及潘世榮，2000)。具有透過教材的支援，才可讓學校教師運用學科教學知識(Pedagogical Content Knowledge)，繼續探索改善教學素質的方法。

本研究計劃就是針對開發資訊科技教材的問題，探討如何運用創新意念以開發教材及支援資訊科技教學。Ball(1996)指出資訊科技的發展是不會停留於某一水平的，相反卻會隨著時間而不停演進。針對科技將會不斷更新的因素，製作數碼錄像短片資源庫的構想，保證教材製作者可持續運用嶄新的科技環境組合短片開發教材。資訊科技演進已使數碼錄像拍攝工作更為輕便，一般非專業人員可更專業地攝錄及剪輯錄像，錄像儲存容量壓縮比例不單漸趨理想而且更能保持良好的播放速度及效果。無論數碼錄像短片製作過程如何暢順，應用如何方便，數碼錄像短片製作仍需按教學需要選材，按教學需要編輯錄像短片。教師因而可靈活地運用數碼錄像

短片或其組合組織教學單元施教，幫助學習者更有效地學習。

發展一個專為小學常識科而設的數碼錄像短片資源庫，就是希望能夠提供切合本地教學需要的資訊科技教材，藉此提升教學素質和效能。香港的學校與其他國家的學校比較，供教學應用的資訊科技教材種類往往只局限於現成的一般教學軟件如教學光碟，資訊科技教材並不能針對學科教學的需要而製作(Law, et al., 1999)。本計劃期望香港的準教師及現職教師能夠善用短片資源庫，嘗試自製具本地特色的多媒體教學片段，並於教學中靈活地運用。

二・計劃理念、目標及成果

資訊科技教學在課程上的應用可劃分成三個範疇：教師利用資訊科技施教，教師選取資訊科技教材施教並供學生學習，和學生利用資訊科技學習。江紹祥及潘世榮(2000)指出在「資訊科技先導計劃」學校最常見的資訊科技教學應用就是教師運用內容自創軟件環境製作多媒體教學單元。數碼錄像短片資源庫的建立，可推動書中所指的資訊科技教育應用。教師藉著圖文影音展示教學知識，可吸引學習者對學習內容的注意，可清晰演示教學課題內容，可動態解說抽象概念，可圖解文字內涵本意，可反覆呈現昂貴的或危險的實驗(江紹祥及潘世榮，2000，頁3)。教師運用數碼錄像短片發展多媒體教學片段或教學單元，有助教師將資訊科技融入課堂教學，協助學生從嶄新的角度體驗學習。

回應政府推行資訊科技教育政策的初期，發展多媒體教學資源協助教師製作資訊科技教材提高教學效益實在是刻不容緩。多媒體教學資源是指多於一種媒體的數碼知識物件，例如輔助教學的數碼音樂、錄音、圖片、美工圖案、圖畫、動畫及錄像等。教師必須花費大量時間預備不同媒體的教學資源才可編輯多媒體教學片段，例如製作一篇課文的多媒體教材，教師可能需要拍攝相片、編製圖表、甚至是錄製數碼短片等等。但是學校教師源於資源、時間及財政等多方面的局限制，大部份教師都感到發展具質素的多媒體教學片段相當困難。

此外Law, et al. (1999)的報告亦指出：香港的教師普遍認為他們沒有足夠的訓練整合資訊及通訊科技於教學工作。教師編訂多媒體教材的知識實在有限，亦缺乏一些現成的資訊科技資源，這些都是阻礙資訊科技教育發展的主要原因。教師在預備多媒體教學內容時，一般都能夠應付課文剪裁與文字處理方面的工作，但當中最大的問題及困難就是欠缺一些有助豐富教學內容的錄像短片。雖然教師可在互聯網或者一些商業教育軟件當中揀選到一些短片，但是大部份都難以配合本地的教學課程，而且當中亦牽涉到版權的問題。再加上本港教師在沉重的工作壓力下，根本就無空餘時間去搜尋、修改甚至於製作相關的教學短片，導致多媒體教學片段發展停滯不前。

1. 計劃目標

本計劃的目標是為小學常識科建立一個數碼錄像短片資源庫，為教師提供一系列質素良好的數碼錄像短片。教師可直接利用數碼錄像短片施教，亦可運用數碼錄像短片發展多媒體教學片段或教學單元施教。

2. 常識科數碼錄像短片資源庫

小學常識科課程內容覆蓋的範疇廣泛（課程發展議會，1997），當中包括與生活息息相關的健康生活、居住環境、自然世界、科學資訊等。由於以上各項教學內容都與日常生活知識相關，而小學生生活經驗有限，如果缺乏一些具動態的多媒體教材來輔助討論和增加學生的知識，教學工作不容易變得多采多姿（So, Hung & Pow, 2000）。因此常識科的教與學需要採用多媒體教學來提供課本以外的資料及接近生活的素材，例如透過播放有關社會設施片段，或者是一些科學實驗示範幫助學生更加容易掌握概念。此外，一系列的室外景觀如香港公園、海洋公園、颱風所造成的自然災害以及污水排放等等日常生活都有助豐富教學內容及學生的知識。學生從數碼錄像短片中不單可以看到香港各處的名勝古蹟，還可以擴闊視野（So, Hung & Pow, 2000）。

發展一個能夠配合本地教育背景的數碼錄像短片資源庫主要是希望能夠像Cuban (1997) 所說：「以科學技術開創新的教學方法(p.xiii)」。教師擁有與課題相關的數碼錄像短片，便可以在課堂播放輔助解說，同時亦可以利用資源編製多媒體教學片段。教師可藉此編織豐富及充實的教學內容，佈置逼真的學習情境，使教學具說服力和感染力(江紹祥及潘世榮，2000)。

3. 資源庫主題內容

數碼錄像短片資源庫主題內容是根據小學常識科課程各級別的主題編製而成。數碼錄像短片資源庫總共覆蓋十二個不同的範疇，分別是：「磁鐵的特性」、「公園」、「天氣」、「熱」、「生活基本需求」、「我們的社區」、「電與生活」、「香港的地理環境與歷史」、

「資訊科技」、「生物的繁殖」、「保護環境」及「力和簡單機械」。數碼錄像短片的拍攝題材依據相關主題內容的概念圖組織，然後部署拍攝細節。圖一展示「磁鐵的特性」的內容概念圖。本研究根據上面描述的十二個範疇，總共製成了超過一百段相關的數碼錄像短片，並儲存於兩隻電腦光碟內。除部分短片是剪輯自香港渠務署所提供的「除污淨流」片段外，其餘都是在香港實景拍攝。

圖一：「磁鐵的特性」的內容概念圖

三・研究方法

本研究通過問卷調查收集使用者對錄像短片資源庫的意見。每一套電腦光碟都附有一份半開放式的調查問卷，調查的目的是希望透過使用者的回應，了解數碼錄像短片資源庫能否協助教師運用資訊科技施教。問卷收集三方面的意見，包括：一、現職教師進行資訊科技教學的情況；二、數碼錄像短片資源庫的介面素質；三、數碼錄像短片內容的教學應用適切性。問卷調查共收到四十位準教師及三十位現職教師的回覆。

四・調查結果及討論

1. 現職教師進行資訊科技教學的情況

現職教師的回應反映各校正處於不同階段應用資訊科技進行教學。根據問卷調查資料顯示，教師應用資訊科技進行教學的所屬學校可歸納為四個類別：一、先導學校；二、全校推行；三、個人自發；四、準備應用。表一展示學校應用資訊科技進行教學類型的比例。

表一：學校應用資訊科技進行教學類型的比例

學校類型	百分比
先導學校	13%
全校推行	53%
個人自發	27%
準備應用	7%

江紹祥及潘世榮(2000)歸納得出先導學校應用資訊科技於教與學的四種類別是演示製作、內容展示、學科學習及輔助學習。參與學校「資訊科技先導計劃」的教師非常認同「數碼錄像短片資源庫」的概念，樂於直接運用數碼知識物件展示內容施教，或利用資源庫短片製作教學演示，並願意積極地推廣這些輔助教學模式。

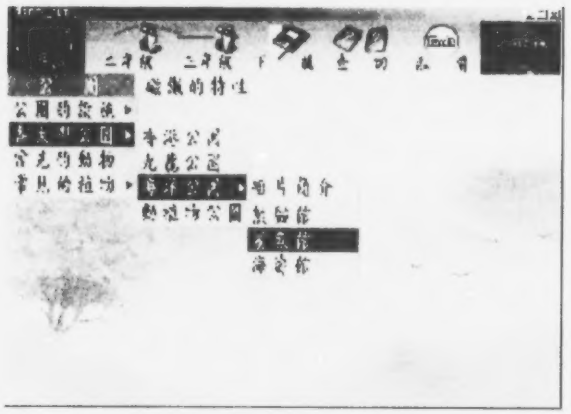
全校推行類別的學校主要由科主任策動或依靠技術人員的支援而展開工作。部分學校憑藉科主任的力量推介及鼓勵教師應用資訊科技輔助教學，其餘則依賴技術人員支援協助開發資訊科技教材，當中約一半學校是由科主任推動的。由科主任策動的教師多數自行運用資源庫材料組織教學工作，依靠技術人員支援的教師則比較依賴技術人員的支援開發多媒體教學單元。

此外，部分學校主要靠教師個人的熱誠，就著個人在資訊科技方面的心得及體會，自發地在教學中運用資訊科技展開輔助教學工作。最後一類型的學校還未真正開始應用資訊科技施教，但是任教的教師正在準備採用資訊科技教學。本節將會討論這四個類別的教師對數碼錄像短片資源庫介面的素質及內容的適切性的回應。

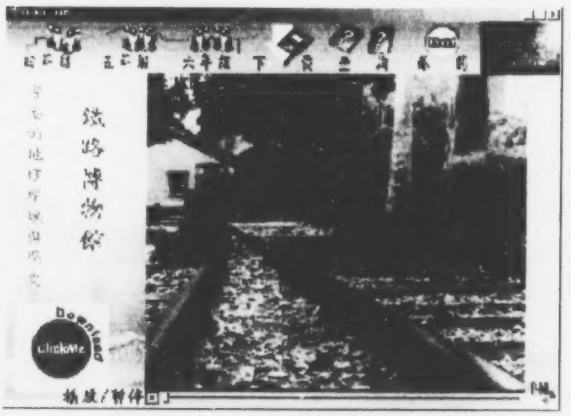
2. 數碼錄像短片資源庫的介面素質

數碼錄像短片資源庫的用戶介面中的目錄是以選單按級別組成，然後再以主、次、次次等目錄的形式將短片課題組織而成，方便使用者選出合適的錄像短片。圖二展示資源庫的用戶介面設計。版面設計理念是務求簡潔、風格一致、功能健齊全及易用。

圖二：數碼錄像短片資源庫的用戶介面



圖三：數碼錄像短片資源庫的介面設計



從七十位教師的回應當中，我們得知使用者認同資源庫介面的設計，能方便用家使用及操作；搜尋功能能夠有效協助用家找尋短片；教師易於從資源庫下載所需短片；並明確讚賞短片畫面質素，大部份使用者都認同介面的色彩鮮艷、圖像吸引。教師普遍欣賞那個由上而下組成的選項表及讚賞中按鈕的立體設計及有趣的圖案。另外，當使用者按功能鍵時，介面還會顯示出注意事項，提供即時需要的資訊，增加介面的互動能力，這些都是用家歡迎的介面設計。有使用者建議加添介面一些點綴，亦有使用者建議讓用家自由調較對話方塊及圖文框的大小，這些都是可以考慮的改進的細節。表二展示使用者對數碼錄像短片資源庫介面設計的意見。

表二：使用者對數碼錄像短片資源庫介面設計的意見

項目	教師	準教師
資源庫的介面設計容易操作	96.4%	95.0%
程式中的搜尋功能夠幫助找尋短片	100.0%	95.0%
短片容易下載	92.8%	90.0%
短片畫面清晰	89.0%	95.0%

圖三進一步展示數碼錄像短片資源庫的介面設計。介面設有"暫停"、"重播"和"離開"三組按鍵方便教師瀏覽短片。使用者亦可以透過簡易的方法下載所需短片，然後儲存到指定的儲存裝置，方便日後利用數碼錄像短片輔助教學或自行編製多媒體教學片段。大部份使用者都同意這一種靈活方便的介面設定。不過亦有部分教師建議改用影音光碟「VCD」代替電腦光碟的儲存模式。

3. 數碼錄像短片內容的教學應用適切性

所有數碼錄像短片均以MPEG-1格式儲存，短片大小由3 MB至20 MB不等，每段數碼錄像短片片長約三十秒至二分鐘不等，圖四展示各個獨立主題短片的資訊內容。

圖四：展示各個獨立主題短片的資訊內容

這個處理方法得到使用者正面的回應，一般使用者都贊賞數碼錄像短片的主題充足、內容豐富，有助減輕教師準備資訊科技教材的重擔，因而能有效地輔助教學工作及提供豐富的教學內容。而且片段長短適中、靈活簡便，方便教師使用，還可以引起學生的學習興趣。表三展示使用者對數碼錄像短片資源庫內容的教學應用適切性的回應。

表三：使用者對資源庫內容的教學應用適切性的回應

項目	教師	準教師
內容切合常識科有關的課題	100.0%	90.0%
內容適合作教學軟件	93.0%	95.0%
短片能夠幫助教師教學	96.6%	95.0%
短片有助學生學習	96.5%	94.7%
短片文字標題配合內容	100.0%	95.2%

大部份使用者都認為這套數碼錄像短片資源庫十分方便用者的使用，有部份用者認為應加長片段的播映時間，也有小部份用者則建議加插旁白講解及背景音樂。雖然加插旁白講解及背景音樂這個提議非常有建設性，可是基於數碼錄像短片資源庫只是用以輔助教學及協助教師自製多媒體教學片段之用，故適宜盡量保留發展的空間，讓教師配合個人的教材自行配上相關之解說及配樂。至於延長短片播映時間這方面則更有待斟酌，原因有文獻指出是短片的播映時間建議不應超過五分鐘，並應該為時三十秒左右（Stempleski & Tomalin, 1990），因為數碼錄像短片並不是代替教師對教學內容的演繹和講解，而是透過觀看短片來引發教師與學生的討論動機。基本上用者都一致贊同數碼錄像短片的視覺效果良好，且認為攝錄機運動適中，但亦有小數認為攝錄機運動速度太快，難以看清楚短片內容；亦有使用者反映有部份短片的畫面較為模糊。提出意見的教師都能協助找出質素未為理想的數碼錄像短片。此外，所有用者都認為數碼錄像短片的標題與內容吻合，只有少數認為有必要為每一段短片加插標題。表四展示使用者對數碼錄像短片質素的意見。

表四：使用者對數碼錄像短片質素的意見

項目	教師			準教師		
	快	適中	慢	快	適中	慢
短片內鏡頭移動的速度	14.8%	81.4%	3.7%	0%	100%	10%
短片的播放速度	7.4%	81.4%	11.1%	9.5%	90.5%	0%

綜合使用者的意見，大部分認為數碼錄像短片資源庫的內容已經非常豐富，亦有小部分建議盡量覆蓋更廣的範疇，希望在百多段短片以外再加入一些新的短片主題，例如更多簡單有趣的科學實驗、植物的生長情況及宇宙、天文等。部分建議有助數碼錄像短片資源庫設計者的跟進如簡單有趣的科學實驗。至於宇宙、天文的短片並不容易製作，但教師可從互聯網尋找、下載，而無需本地重複製作。互聯網及本地的製作互補不足可更有效地運用資源，例如在探討有關九大行星的問題或在學習天文課題時需要了解太空探索的最新發展，教師可以到各地的太空總署如美國的太空總署(NASA)的網頁下載相關資料(蘇詠梅，2000)。

上述討論對製作數碼錄像短片內容的選取有一定的啟示。由於與香港小學課程相關的同類型數碼錄像短片並不多見，使用者當然期望資源庫可以提供所有有關的教學內容。其實製作數碼錄像短片課程內容的選取準則應是切合教學需要及配合本土特色。由於優質的資訊科技教材難求(Neill & Neill, 1993)及各地文化背景不同，本地製作的數碼錄像短片資源庫只可以幫助教師解決部分難題，至於一些與其他國家或地區有關的材料，以及一些需要高科技的製作題材，教師仍需要加倍努力在互聯網尋覓其他合適的資訊科技教材。

五・啟示

1. 數碼錄像短片在教學上的應用

根據教師的回應，所有用者都認為數碼錄像短片資源庫適用於教學。數碼錄像短片不單能幫助教師節省備課時間，還可以提供額外資料，豐富教學內容及提升教學效能。數碼錄像短片確能擴闊學生的視野，雖然他們身處課室，但仍可屬實地感染到新的體驗。此外，生動活潑的畫面能夠引發學生的學習興趣，提升他們的學習動力；而科學實驗示範更有助學生從觀察當中加深對實驗的理解。由於錄像短片的內容與本地的課程吻合，因此能切合教學需要。

所有用者都一致認為數碼錄像短片資源庫對教師自訂多媒體教學片段很有幫助，而事實上只要在資源充足的情況下才會有熱心的教師願意嘗試製作具個人特色的多媒體片段。當問及教師會怎樣運用資源庫的數碼錄像短片時，部份教師表示會於課堂上播出相關的片段；而其餘則表示會用以製作多媒體教材之用。但根據 Jonassen, Peck, Wilson(1999)的建議，教師若希望藉數碼錄像短片來促進教學，應將片段內容適當地與課堂的主題結合。他們反覆強調，學生必須透過實物觀察能夠加深對事物的了解，但是播放實驗錄像短片，要求學生預計實驗的結果，並藉此與實際結果比較，可加強學生對實驗的了解 (Lawrence, 1994)。

從使用者在應用數碼錄像短片的情況中得到的啟示是數碼錄像短片可運用於教學，亦可運用於製作多媒體教學片段。資訊科技教育最具價值的功能是藉此刺激教師反思課程施教模式(江紹祥及潘世榮，2000)。無論教師運用資源庫於教學或製作多媒體教學片段，數碼錄像

短片在教學方面的應用可以是多元化的，數碼錄像短片可以在不同的教學法發揮所長，包括講述法、歸納教學法、課業為本教學法、難題為本學習教學法及社群建構教學法等(羅陸慧英，袁海球，郝永華，李兆璋，李陽及周燕，2000)。例如教師在講述法可以透過模擬學習的優點，讓學生觀看一些在課室內基於各種原因如安全問題、器材的缺乏或時間不容許而不能進行的實驗(Steed, 1992)，如測試葉片澱粉成份的實驗所用的加熱方法在小學課室內進行是有一定的危險性，宜運用短片進行講述。又例如採用歸納教學法及課業為本教學法的教師，可運用一個非線性方式，具體地把過往在課堂內學生難以感受和體會的活動或現象呈現出來，為學生提供選擇和容許適當的操控(Berger, Lu, Belzer & Voss, 1994)，增加學生的學習興趣，從而提高學習效能，例如教師組織香港古蹟短片，讓學生從觀看短片中找出香港某時期的背景資料。又例如在難題為本學習教學法及社群建構教學法中讓學生觀看短片，從資料和討論當中建構知識，如從觀看遊人在燒烤場上的行為來進行小組討論找出一些破壞大自然的行為。

2. 教師在發展數碼錄像短片資源庫的角色

教師的工作量非常繁重，一般只能騰出有限的時間運用資源庫製作資訊科技教材。但是每位教師在教育的工作崗位上都各有專長及興趣，若教師樂於在數碼錄像短片資源庫的發展作出貢獻，教師可扮演多方面的角色，工作量可輕亦可重。教師可為數碼錄像短片資源庫內容的發展提供意見，由於教師是用家，他們的意見應是資源庫內容製作的方向。教師亦可按興趣參與部分製作的工作，例如教師可提供教學素材供拍攝之用，可參與錄製工作等。最後教師亦可嘗試全面參與製作，從構思、策劃、拍攝到後期剪輯等，教師因而可全面認識錄像短片的製作過程。教師的參與可發掘其潛能，可提供集思廣益、分享交流的機會，因而可達集腋成裘之目的，累積可觀的資訊科技的專業教材。只要教師在製作過程獲得適當的支援，教師便可有效地製作具質素的教材。

培訓教師在教學善用資訊科技教材，也是數碼錄像短片資源庫的其中一個發展方向。培訓的目標應是改變教師被動的意識，引導教師扮演導引者的角色，主動地重新闡釋課程重點，樂於有機地尋找、篩選、判斷及組織資訊科技教材，帶領課程發展，促進學生主動學習。培訓其實不應局限於鼓勵教師把資訊科技融入課程及教學，還應促進教學模式轉變的意識和思維(江紹祥及潘世榮，2000)，從傳遞知識的教學模式轉為學生主動建構知識的學習模式，協助學生進行有效的學習。

六・結論

本文透過數碼錄像短片資源庫使用者的調查意見結果，討論如何改善現有的資源庫使用介面素質和數碼錄像短片的內容，並探討數碼錄像短片資源庫在「學」與「教」的效益。本文歸納總結了製作數碼錄像短片課程內容的選取準則，探討了運用資源庫於教學的方法，並指出數碼錄像短片資源庫的發展方向及教師在發展數碼錄像短片的角色，供有興趣參加推廣資訊科技教育的教師參考。

其實在探討利用數碼錄像短片輔助教學的文獻調查過程中，我們發現除了在部分文章曾提及以錄影短片輔助語言教學之外(Secules, Herron, Tomasello, 1992 和 Stempleski & Tomalin, 1990)，運用數碼錄像短片來教授常識科並不多見，因此製作數碼錄像短片輔助常識科教學可算是相當創新的意念。課室以外的世界實在有太多值得學習的內容，數碼錄像短片能夠以簡單直接的方法將一些生動的資料帶到課室，讓學生可更深刻地體會現實世界的一面(Jonassen, Peck, Wilson, 1999)。而更重要的是令他們懂得將課本的知識與現實世界連繫起來。

從用者的回應得知教師認同透過影像能增加學生對社會不同層面的了解及對課題的興趣。綜合所有的回應及建議，印證數碼錄像短片資源庫普遍受到教師歡迎，縱使部分短片的畫面質素尚可改進，大部份使用者均認為短片有助教學及方便製作多媒體教材。使用者的意見有助日後製作數碼錄像短片作輔助教學用途，及改善數碼錄像短片的質素，讓教師可更方便地利用數碼錄像短片製作多媒體教材來推動本港的資訊科技教育。至於多媒體教學片段，教學演示或網頁，雖然並非完美的教學知識載體，但教師自行製作資訊科技教材，確實可增加教師運用資訊科技的信心，透過提供具質素的數碼錄像短片，教師可以嘗試施行多元的教學方案，學生因而可獲得更豐富的學習經驗。

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(Received: 22.12.00, accepted 1.3.01, revised 6.4.01)

Transforming Extensive Reading Lessons

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Extensive Reading (also known as ERS or the Extensive Reading Scheme) in many Hong Kong schools is viewed, organised and promoted in very narrow and limiting terms. Traditionally, ERS is enacted in the selection and reading of a book followed by the completion of the relevant book card. This paper challenges the prevailing paradigm and encourages teachers to transform their ERS lessons by adopting approaches that will activate and enhance pupils' engagement with the ERS books and ultimately reap long term benefits in EFL/ESL learning. These approaches include making the aesthetic and affective dimension integral to ERS as well as the promotion and adoption of a Vygotskyian social interaction framework in the structure and design of the activities. A description, examples and illustrations of the activities to promote the two approaches are provided for classroom practitioners.

改造廣泛閱讀課堂

在香港，學校對於廣泛閱讀計劃(又作ERS)的看法、編排及推廣，各方面仍停留在很狹窄的層面。傳統上，所謂的ERS，是先取出書本，然後閱讀圖書，最後把有關的資料填在圖書咭上。這文章的目的是挑戰現有的模式，並鼓勵老師對他們的廣泛閱讀課堂作出改變，採用不同的方法務求令學生投入於廣泛閱讀的書本中，以便最終能為學生帶來在英語學習上的長遠得益。這些方法包括：1）在課堂活動中加入ERS固有的美學及情感的原素。2）採用並推廣Vygotsky理論中互動社會作用的構想。本文將會就上述兩個方法，加以詳細描述，並舉出一些活動和例子，以供老教師參考。

Introduction

Every week or fortnight many secondary and primary students in Hong Kong participate in an English Extensive Reading Scheme (EERS) by selecting and reading books, completing the required task cards and then repeating the cycle all over again. Somewhere in this process, they may or may not get an opportunity to spend a few moments with the teacher to talk about what they have read and done. I observed a few class periods of EERS being led by a pre-service teacher and I participated in student-teacher conferences. My observations, which were later confirmed by the student teacher and the class teacher, indicated that while virtually all the students were involved in reading or doing the activity cards, when asked simple questions about what they had read, most students had very little or nothing to offer. Students' lack of responses may have been influenced by their second language oral proficiency skills, however, their teacher felt that language was a factor for only some of the students as she believed that many students found extensive reading boring or regarded it as "just another task to be done". It appears that students in this class for various reasons were exhibiting low levels of involvement or engagement in the extensive reading programme.

The following analyses of a Form 2B videotaped ERS lesson, shown in Table 1, paint a similar picture of students' low engagement in the ERS. The analyses also show the extent to which students are actually reading.

Time/Course of Events	T Monitoring	Engaged Reading		Non-Reading Activities						
Real Time	T walks around	Ss reading silently	Ss doing ERS task card	*Ss speaking to the T*	Ss conferencing w/ T (discussing their books)	Ss speaking to 3s Discussing /chatting	Ss walking up to the front	Ss getting the books	Ss returning books	Other Activities
00'00-02'35	Asks Ss to get ERS book, Settle down			*			*	*		
02'35-03'45	T deals with discipline	*				*				
03'45-05'08	Asks Ss to be quiet						*	*		
05'58-07'08	T walks around	S on the Left				*	*	*		
07'08-08'00	Listens to a S's Story				*	*	*	*		
08'00-08'36	Deals with discipline									
08'36-10'20	Listens to a S's story	*			*		*			
1020-1040	T explains vocab			**S in front asks T a word*						
10'40-12'05	T walks around						*			
12'05-13'12	T walks around			Ss in the front pointing to blackboard						
13'12-13'50	Disciplines 2 Students	*					*		*	
13'50-15'48	Stands in front	*								
15'48-16'27	Stands in front					*				
16'27-17'55	Stands in front	*								
17'55-18'35	Walks around			*						
18'35-18'55	Looks at S in front	*								
18'55-21'02	T sits & reads, Keeps an eye on Ss	A boy turns the pages of his book				A girl chats with other students				A girl organizes worksheets
21'02-23'50		*	T talks to Ss on R announces something, Ss seem interested	*Ss on the right talk with T						
23'50-26'13	T Stands in front								*	
No. of Occurences		7		*2*	2	4	7	4	**2**	

Table 1. A picture of students' low engagement in ERS.
Total Time = 26 minutes 13 seconds T = Teacher Ss = Students

This previous lesson is characterised by a great deal of student movement and chatting, which, on the video, is quite noisy and disruptive to the act of reading. While there are some students reading, there are still many students moving about and the teacher has very few meaningful interactions with the students. There is, in general, a predominance of off-task activities in this class and these are not conducive to developing a positive atmosphere for promoting reading.

From discussion with teachers, the description of the lesson given in Table 1 and the one described earlier, the prevailing atmosphere and activities characterize ERS classrooms in Hong Kong and are generally non-conducive to promoting a positive attitude for reading in English. Yu (1999 p.72), in an investigation of 490 Form 2 Hong Kong students who had participated in a two-year extensive reading programme, concluded that:

> The significantly different responses of the control and experimental groups to questions concerning "Reading patterns" show clearly that students in the programme are more regular readers. On the other hand it must be noted that although 68.5% of the experimental students believed that the scheme had increased their interest in reading, the remaining 30% of the students did not feel that the scheme had made any difference. It is therefore important to investigate further to find out why it was so. Was it because the books were not interesting? Or was it because these students lacked reading strategies to help them master the skills that would help them enjoy reading?

She continued:

> Another interesting finding is that despite the positive attitude the scheme had fostered in most of the experimental students towards reading, only 27% of them included 'Reading in English' as a favourite pastime. (p.72)

Although pupils' interests were aroused as a result of the scheme, 30% of the students felt that the scheme made little difference and only 27% identified reading as a favourite pastime. While it may be possible that the books were not interesting and that the students may have lacked specific reading strategies, another plausible explanation could be that the dominant activities in the extensive reading classes did little to motivate and engage the students in reading for pleasure and meaning. While it is beyond the scope of this paper to provide full documentation of the nature of all ERS lessons, experience and encounters with many teachers call for a need to investigate our prevailing practices in this area.

There are two broad approaches that teachers can adopt and incorporate in their extensive reading programmes to transform them and help them to become more effective and dynamic with interested and fully engaged readers. These two approaches are (1), the promotion of the aesthetic and affective side of reading and (2), the incorporation of a social interactionist framework in our activities design. In my work with secondary school teachers and the primary teachers on the Primary English Reading Project (PERP)[1], teachers have been encouraged to adopt these and similar approaches in their EFL reading programmes.

Promoting the Aesthetic and Affective Domain

Extensive reading could be more effective in meeting its goals of developing a love for and long life interest in reading if the programme incorporated and reflected more of the aesthetic aspects of reading. The aesthetics of reading and the affective domain are interrelated as aesthetics deals with appreciation and enjoyment and the affective domain deals with our feelings, beliefs, attitudes and motivation. Day and Bamford (1998, p.21) call the "lack of systematic and principled attention to the affective dimension of second language reading as 'unfortunate'". One of the important aspects of the affective domain, is what Rosenblatt (1983, p. 78) calls "the creation of a setting for personal response". Rosenblatt sees personal response as opportunities for students to organize their "diffuse responses and formulate their views" (p.78). At the time of her first printing in the early part of the last century in 1938, Rosenblatt felt that:

1 PERP was a three year longitudinal investigation into the development of EFL literature-based reading programmes in selected primary schools across Hong Kong. The results of the investigation show significant positive effects on pupils' reading behaviour. Teachers were overwhelmingly appreciative of the powerful effects of the programme and its instructional strategies.

> The problem that the teacher faces first of all, then, is the creation of a situation favorable to a vital experience of literature. Unfortunately, many of the practices and much of the tone of literature teaching have precisely the opposite effect. They place a screen between the student and the book. The solution of this primary problem is therefore complicated by habitual attitudes and academic practices. The majority of English teachers still need to concentrate on this problem, for in many English classes today the instructor never even glimpses the student's personal sense of the work discussed. (p. 61)

The development and promotion of the aesthetics of reading is crucial if we want our extensive reading programmes to have long lasting impact. If students like and appreciate something and have opportunities to respond to what they have read in personally relevant ways, the chances are they will continue to read long after they have left the confines of the classroom. McKenna (1994, p.36-37) outlines several ways that teachers can promote the "enjoyment factor" some of these are given below:

- Work to instill positive beliefs by challenging students negative beliefs;
- Create an attractive print rich environment that promotes reading;
- Plan a varied programme by offering a variety of genres and topics;
- Provide positive adult and student models;
- Seek parental involvement.

Other ways that the aesthetics of extensive reading can be promoted are by adopting the attitude of "no testing - no questioning". This can be done by making extensive reading less like a regular school task but more like an activity where students can relax because they are not being graded or assessed every time. Regular classroom rules and routines can be relaxed so that students feel trusted to carry out their reading programme under less vigilance and surveillance. Teachers can add to this by incorporating other mediums into the extensive reading time such as using quiet music to calm students and enhance students' receptivity. The classroom could also feature other interesting artistic expressions such as students' and professionals' art work including illustrations from extensive reading books. Many educators believe that the affective dimensions of reading deserve equal importance as the cognitive aspects (e.g. Cramer & Castle, 1994 p.3; Day & Bamford 1998 p.21-31). They feel that little attention is given to nurturing and developing these areas because teachers have to deal with the "content" of the programme - getting the job done and giving little attention to the "how". But the main way we can promote the affective domain is by being very positive about our programmes as "positive teachers create enthusiastic readers (Dwyer & Dwyer, 1994 p.72).

Bamford & Day (1997, p.7) believe that

> The primary consideration in all reading instruction should be for students to experience reading as pleasurable and useful. Only then will they be drawn to do the reading they must do to become fluent readers. And only then will they develop an eagerness to learn new skills to help them become better readers.

When school programmes in general and reading programmes in particular, are centred around the personal and emotional engagement of students, only then can we begin to make an impact on touching students in personally relevant and meaningful ways.

Adopting a Social Interactionist Perspective

In addition to promoting the aesthetic and affective domain, the adoption of a dynamic constructivist and social interactionist approach to extensive reading will encourage and motivate students to read more and also promote their development in the other skill areas. Traditional approaches to extensive reading such as reading and then completing comprehension work cards or book report forms as described earlier, limit students' interaction with their peers and de-emphasize the social nature of learning. The adoption of a social interactionist or a modified Vygotskian approach (Vygotsky, 1962) will help to motivate students to work harder at the activities. Vygotsky was a Soviet psychologist who stressed the importance of the development of students' learning in conjunction with more capable adults and peers. According to Vygotsky (1978), language and thought are

developed through interaction with others. As humans we are social beings and educators can capitalise on our social nature to increase learning opportunities for pupils through the skillful grouping and the provision of adequate support in the design of instructional activities. The Book Club Program (McMahon & Raphael, 1997) is an example of a successful literacy programme that was based on the social interaction perspective. The activities involved students working with more capable peers and teachers who provided appropriate scaffolding for students' literacy development.

When students work together, their engagement in the reading process will be increased and their envisionment will be developed. Envisionment refers to "the understanding a student (or teacher) has about a text, whether it is being read, written, discussed or tested" (Langer, 1995 p.10). These envisionments are always ever changing and they become enriched over time when we interact and share our literary experiences. Through integrating the skills and adopting social interactionist approaches, students can grow in envisionment cognitively, socially, and affectively.

Ways to Transform Extensive Reading

The main reason for transforming ERS programmes is because a programme that is dynamic and participatory is one that will have a more lasting impact on students' reading attitudes and ultimately their reading behaviour. Virtually all students can benefit from a dynamic programme even though they may be at different reading and proficiency levels and have different interests. Such a programme could incorporate the type of activities outlined in Table 2 which are designed to increase student envisionment and engagement through a social interactionist perspective. The table shows the possible time selected ERS activities could be done in a 35-45 minute ERS lesson. The teacher could select from the range of options entitled "Extending Extensive Reading" which could be done in 10-15 minutes period or if time allows, in a full 35 minute lesson.

Table 2 Options for Extending Extensive Reading

Time	Type of Activity	The Description
5 mins	Selection of books	Students select interesting books from a wide variety of choices.
15 - 20 mins	USSR, DEAR	During this time, everyone including the teacher is engaged in reading. There is no talking and there are no interruptions as everyone is reading. This is the most important aspect of extensive reading "time to read".
10-15 mins	Extending Extensive Reading Options	Teachers can chose from a variety of activities to enhance and promote extended reading development.
	Storytelling time	During storytelling time the teacher may read a favourite story to the students from a big book or a story book; students may also read to the class, small groups or a friend; they may work in groups to practice reading stories together such as in readers' theatre.
	Writing time	During the writing time the students may engage in a variety of writing activities such as writing in response journals; filling in book report forms; writing character sketches; responding to story frames.
	Sharing time	During sharing time, students may share what they have read and/or written with the whole class, small groups or with a friend.
	Conferencing	During conferencing, the teacher may chat with the students about what they have read. The teacher may ask students to read excerpts of their favourite part of the story.
5 mins	Finishing -Up	Students complete their reading, or the activities that they are engaged in or return/ or exchange books.

Table 2 outlines some possible activities for a single period extensive reading lesson. However, it is better if the extended reading time covers a double period so that the teacher could organise the time more flexibly. If the extensive reading programme takes place in a single period then the teacher would need to select only one or two activities for students to carry out. More time could be accrued if pupils were allowed to select and return books before class and after class or during recess. However, teachers should ensure that regardless of how time is trimmed, the most important element of any ERS programme is the provision of time to read. The USSR (Uninterrupted Sustained Silent Reading) or DEAR (Drop Everything and Read) time, is the crux of the extensive reading programme and teachers need to ensure that students have time to do this in class as they often do not have the time outside of class or in other classes. An important characteristic of time to read is the amount of time that is allowed. As we can see from the ERS lesson analysis given earlier, this is often difficult to achieve. However, time to read every day is critical to the success of an ERS programme.

The Extended Activities

The activities outlined in table two under options are the activities for bolstering students' interest and love for reading.[2] The check-card activity has not been included as this is already a common place activity in extensive reading programmes especially in Hong Kong. An over-reliance on these types of "comprehension checking' activities as has been mentioned previously, can undermine students' interest in reading as they may see reading books as a task, especially a school task that involves checking and correction. Our objective as educators is to develop in students a life-long interest in reading and its application to their daily lives by touching them affectively and allowing envisionment to develop in socially interactive ways. One of the first options to achieve this is through storytelling and reading aloud.

Storytelling & Reading Aloud

Everyone loves a good storyteller and students need good role models to reap the benefits of storytelling. The teacher could help to develop a love for reading by telling the students excerpts from some of the extensive reading books or other story books and by allowing students to become storytellers too. For storytelling the teacher wants to ensure that s/he or the student:

- memorises the key parts of the story;
- includes the bits of vocabulary and phrases that make the story distinctive;
- uses props and costumes if desired;
- uses intonation, inflection, gestures, facial expression, movement and appropriate pacing to bring the story to life.

For reading aloud from the extensive reading books or other books such as big books the same principles for storytelling apply. However, for big books, the teacher can invite all the students to join in as these stories often have repetitive lines which students can read along with the teacher as well as following while s/he reads the rest of the story. It is therefore important for the teacher to use a pointer so that slower students do not lose their place in the text. In addition the teacher could allow some of the students to **read to the class** their favourite sections of the story or bring in outside storytellers and readers who can further motivate students. However, before storytelling or reading, it is important for the teacher to prepare the class by seating the students close together if possible so that they experience the "communal" atmosphere of storytelling and could therefore better appreciate the story through their **audience response** and **participation**.

In addition to encouraging students to read to the whole class, an important aspect of read-aloud is having students read to each other. **Paired-reading** aloud or storytelling, allows every child to be heard and acts as a strong motivator for improving one's reading. Weak and strong students can

2 For more practical ideas for developing Extensive Reading in Hong Kong primary and secondary schools see Desmond Allison and Steve Tauroza's (1989) Developing Reading in English: Approaches and Techniques. Hong Kong: Institute of Language in Education, Education Department.

be paired so that support is given to the weaker students while the stronger students learn how to provide a good model. Students' **rereading of** stories could also be encouraged to develop fluency and again build confidence. Repeated readings to different students or the same partner increases confidence and self-esteem for the slower reader.

Another read aloud activity that builds confidence in reading is the **readers' theatre** which involves the dramatic reading of stories and poems as if one were in a radio studio. Choral reading is also another form of dramatic reading but may involve memorisation. In readers' theatre, there is no memorisation of parts but fluency is critical so students should have lots of practice with emphasis on intonation and expression. Students can also incorporate sound effects into their dramatic readings. Sebesta (1992, p.59) calls it "bringing sound and imagery to listeners through the art of oral interpretation". Music can also be used to enhance such presentations. The Pied Piper of Hamelin, (as retold by Robert Browning), a popular children's story lends itself well to readers' theatre as all the students can be involved and both music and sound effects can be easily incorporated.

Writing Time

During writing time, students can engage in a number of activities which would encourage personal response to the stories as well as promote authorship, creative expression and the development of general writing skills. Personal response and creative expression could be encouraged through response journals or book logs. The response journal is like a diary that students write their thoughts in about the stories they have read or listened to. Depending on their level and interests, students may include pictures and drawings in their response journal. The teacher might also provide some prompts to help students get started such as these questions adapted from Angeletti (1991)

Fig. 1 Sample questions to help students frame journal responses

1. Is there a lot of action in your book? How does the author make it exciting?
2. If you could change the book, how would you change it?
3. How has your feeling about the book changed from the beginning to the end?
4. Does the title fit the story? Why or why not?
5. Compare the characters to yourself, family, friends, etc.
6. Is the book too long or too short? Why do you think so?
7. Would you recommend the book to others?
8. Could you be friends with a character in the book? Why?
9. Is anything in the book weird? Why did the author put it in?
10. Describe a scene from your book. What would you have done if you had been there?

Adapted from Angeletti, S. R., (1991) Encouraging students to think about what they read. *The Reading Teacher*, 45(4), pp.288-296

The main thing about the response journal is that the teacher responds to what the student has written. What is important here is that the teacher comments on the content and not necessarily the form of what the student has written as the purpose is to develop the student's love for reading. This type of dialogue develops a wonderful bond between the teacher and the student and helps to develop the student's confidence in reading and writing. As pupils grow in confidence, the teacher can allow them to respond to each other's entries. Students can be paired with similar and/or different ability students for a few weeks. Parents can also be asked to read or listen to students as they read their journals and then write their responses in L1 or L2.

Personal response may also be developed through specific response questions designed for different types of ERS books. For example, for the Secret Garden by Frances Hodgson Burnett, if all the students have read the story, the following questions could be asked after students have read the description of Mary, the principal character in the book.

Fig 2.

1. What does this text remind you of?
2. Do you think Mary is a happy girl? Why or why not?
3. Identify the words that are used to describe Mary. Can you think of any others?
4. What has caused Mary to be the way she is?
5. Do you know anyone who is like Mary?
6. Would you want to be Mary's friend? Why or why not?

Story Frames

Story frames are useful for developing authorship in students. Story frame writing initiates students into the structure of the key elements of different types of stories and gives them support for eventually creating their own stories. The objective is to provide students with some support which will eventually become unnecessary as students would have acquired a framework. A simple story frame for narrative writing looks like this:

In this story the problems starts when _____

_____

After that _____

Next _____

Then _____

The problem is solved when _____

_____

The story ends _____

_____

(from Cudd & Roberts, 1987 p.75)

To add the social interactionist dimension to story frame writing, students who have read the same story can work together to complete a story frame, which can then be shared with the whole class. Students can also work together to create their own frames for other types of text for which frames may not have been provided.

Letter Writing To Authors

Writing to authors helps children to become aware of the creators of text and of their own potential to become writers. In this writing activity students have an opportunity to tell the author how they feel about the story and what they like or did not like about the story, how they would change the ending for example. They also have an opportunity to find out personal things about the author and learn about his or her life. These letters can then be mailed to the publisher or directly to the authors if their addresses are available. Students may also think about writing to the illustrators of their books.

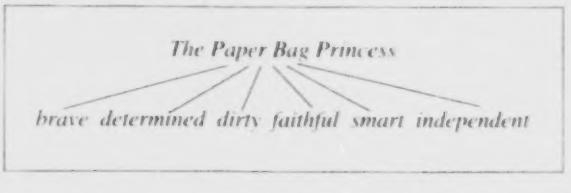
Letter Writing to Friends, Teachers, Parents

The letter writing to authors can be extended to friends, teachers and parents. Students can write letters to these people to tell them about a good book that they have read and how they feel about it. Students who have read similar stories or different stories by the same authors can also get together and create the letter. Hopefully the receivers of the letters will be inspired to write a response to the students.

Developing **literary** or **research** projects is also another extended type of writing activity that could be done in pairs or small groups. Students may be intrigued by the settings in their stories or certain periods in history for example and might want to do an extended project on it. This type of activity lends itself to a variety of genres such as adventure, biographies and information books and students may want to gather more information or find out people's opinion about the idea through conducting a survey or interviews. Students can then prepare their report for presentation to their classmates by using multi-media or a simple visual display.

Writing time is usually seen as a solitary activity but in fact it can be an opportunity for much sharing and personal growth and development. Just as process writing supports students' collaboration these activities mentioned here can accommodate student sharing, creating, editing and publishing. While the activities mentioned previously are more extended types of writing there are also other shorter types which also lend themselves to active student involvement. In these writing activities, students can work in pairs or small groups to design character mobiles of interesting characters and develop grids about interesting words or concepts in the story. For example in the story The Paper Bag Princess, a modern day fairy tale by Robert Munsch, students could be asked to create a character mobile or grid. Examples of these follow.

Character Mobile



The Grid

Question	Modern Day Princesses	Fairy Tale Princesses	What do you think?
Where they live/lived			
What they wear/wore			
What they do/did			
Where you see/saw them			
What are/were their names			

Book Reports

Book reports are the aged-old forms for reporting on what one has read. Many students are bored with the same form of presentation and types of questions to which they have to respond. Teachers need to experiment as much as possible for ways to constantly present the format in challenging and motivating ways to students. For example, the standard book report form with title, author, setting, main characters etc. can be spiced-up and written as a poem, song or a rap which students can tape and submit to the teacher or share with the class. If students are artistic they can draw their interpretation of the story, create a picture board of their favourite characters or create an advertisement to advertise or "sell" their story to others. All these activities can be done in pairs or small groups to encourage discussion and ultimately develop appreciation for books.

Sharing Time

Integral to all the activities that have been described so far is an element of sharing. Sharing in the storytelling and the reading aloud as well as the writing activities enhance deeper levels of engagement and promote enjoyment. However, teachers still need to include in their schedule specific time for students to share what they have done with the other students who were not a part of the same activity. It is important that sharing is done in a atmosphere of trust and acceptance of what each person has to offer. Students need to be able to take risks without feeling threatened (Johns & VanLeirsburg, 1994 p.93).

Conferencing

Conferencing is a different kind of sharing with the teacher. During this special time the teacher needs to check students' progress in the programme. These sessions may be done individually, in pairs or in small groups. During these sessions, the students may tell the teacher about what they are reading and the teacher may ask them about their thoughts on aspects of the story. The teacher may record the students' comments to document the students' responses. During the individual conference the teacher may ask the student to read to him or her and write comments next to items on a **checklist** like the one below, to record the student's oral reading progress.

- *reads familiar material fluently*
- *reads with appropriate expression*
- *makes corrections to preserve meaning*
- *observes punctuation to construct meaning*
- *takes risks in pronunciation*
- *when confronting unfamiliar words skips the word and continues to read*
- *rereads the sentence*
- *uses context clues*
- *uses picture clues*
- *attempts to sound out*
- *asks another person*
- *looks at the word and waits to be helped*

(adapted from Strickland, 1992 p121)

Examples of the Possibilities of ERS Engagement

Thus far we have been discussing the types of activities that could be used to extend pupils' understanding and appreciation of texts. The following is an excerpt which illustrates "sharing time" during an ERS lesson. In this excerpt, the teacher is working with a class of boys in an upper banding school[3]. The students are sharing their reading experiences with the whole class. The second excerpt is from a Form 2 class of lower banding pupils.[4] In this excerpt, the teacher is working with a group of students to help them create a slogan that captures the main ideas of the stories that they have read.

Excerpt 1 Form 1 - Sharing Stories

T: What lesson have you learned from this story? Anybody wants to come out and share his story? . No volunteer? Now, I'll call the number. OK let me see, twenty...five. Who is 25? Oh! Mark.

S1: I don't want to discuss.

T: You don't want to? You have not finished the book ... at least you have finished half of the book...

S1: Yes.

T: How many pages have you finished?

S1: 37.

T: You have finished 37 pages. How many pages are there?

S1: 71.

T: OK. Meaning half of the book. You must know about some of the book. Alright, just tell us what you know. Come out, I'll hold the book for you, you just talk to them.

S11: The name of this book is Treasure Tree.

T: The Treasure Tree. OK. Do you know what a treasure tree is? Yes, for those people who say yes, can you tell us what a treasure tree is? Ray, What do you understand by treasure tree. A treasure tree..

S2: Which contains some treasures, which is some valuable thing?

T: Very valuable thing. Can you give us some examples, of valuable thing?

S2: Gold

T: Gold.

S3: Coins.

T: Coins OK. Anymore?

S4: Diamonds. Jewels.

T: Diamonds, jewels So, they are, I mean, all valuable things. So, sit down. Tell us something about the Treasure Tree.

S1: A treasure tree is a medicine.

T: What? Can you hear?

S1: Medicine.

T: A treasure tree is a medicine ... What is the word you hear?

Ss: Medicine

T: Medicine so the treasure tree is ...

S1: ...it is in the forest ...and ...

T: And, what kind of medicine? What kind, the medicine is given to the sick people? How can you cure the sick people?

S1: The ill people, make well.

T: OK. It can make the sick people well, anymore?

S1: It is very difficult to find the treasure tree. It is in the forest.

T: How do people know there is a treasure tree. Any signs on the tree?

S1: Mingke is a little girl. OK. Peter's father who is a doctor asked him to find the medicine to cure Mingke.

T: So, did he manage to find the tree?

S1: Yes.

T: He gets the medicine?

S1: He gets the medicine to Peter's father.

Code: T = Teacher, S = Student

Excerpt 2: Form 2 -Developing Slogans - Group 2

(T monitors a group of 4 students.)

T: Let me correct that for you. Honesty, use the noun (T corrects S1's slogan). Honesty is good. That's very good! A very good slogan!

S4: (S4 nods her head)

T: What's your slogan? (T asks S5. S5 shows the T her slogan) Ok, if you love a lovely dolphin...". Let's look at the storybook. Alright. (pause) Um... a slogan only has a few words. Only a few words. Right? So, you have many words. Let's see, which words do you want to use?

S5: (silent)

3 Many thanks to Ms. Serlina Suen for the use of this excerpt from her videotaped ERS lesson.

4 Many thanks to Ms. Nancy Chan for the use of this excerpt from her videotaped ERS lesson.

T: Let's just have 3 or 4 words. Which words would you use?
S5: (silent)
T: You understand?
S5: Yes.
T: How many words?
S5: (counting the words of her slogan)
T: Too many words, right? So, let's have only 4 or 5 words. So, what can we say? (T looks at the S's notes) A lovely dolphin, where's your story? Where is your book? (S5 shows the T her storybook)
T: What does this dolphin do? (T shows the S the cover of the book) Where's the dolphin? Where? (S5 points to the book cover)
T: So, what does he do? (T points to the dolphin)
S5: He, he is swimming.
T: Swimming, and then?
S5: ...
T: What else?
S5: Jump out the water
T: And then? (T turns and talks to another S) Are you alright? Can you see? What else? (S4 & S5 look at the cover of the book together) Is he dreaming about the dolphin?
S5: Yes.
T: Yes. What does he do for the dolphin?
S5: I don't know
T: You don't know, Ok. What happens to the dolphin in the story? What happens?
S5: ...found the home
T: He found the home.
S5: Yes.
T: So, we can say "the dolphin finds a home". That could be your slogan. (S5 nods)
T: The dolphin finds a home, right?
S5: Yes.
T: And then, how many words do we have? The - dolphin - finds - a - home. Five words. (T counts her fingers) So we have a few words, right?
S5: Yes
T: Ok, so you write down your new slogan here. What's you slogan? (T asks another group member)

Observations

In both of these lessons, the teachers are allowing the pupils to engage in reporting on the stories that they have read. In Excerpt 1, the teacher is fostering pupils' vocabulary development through the pupil's recounting of what he has read. In Excerpt 2, the teacher is trying to help students articulate the main idea of the story through the development of a slogan. Both activities invite pupils to share with others be it the whole class as in Excerpt 1 or a small group as in Excerpt 2. Because the teacher is placing such a high value on the reading of the books by allocating time for sharing in various forms, the message that is imparted to pupils is that this is a valued and important activity. An obvious by-product of all this, is that students get to talk about what they have read, listen to their classmates, and share their ideas and experiences through various mediums. This is a clearly an affirmation of their reading which could develop all their language skills over time. The teachers in both excerpts provide the necessary scaffolding to help the students to communicate their ideas. This is the support given by more knowledgeable others in the social interaction perspective.

Conclusion

In a 1997 report on the feasibility of extending extensive reading in Chinese and English to all levels of primary and secondary schools in Hong Kong, the project team (Storey et al, 1997) recommended that ERS be extended to all levels of primary schooling (p.x). However, there were some reservations regarding full implementation at the secondary levels. In their interviews with secondary teachers, the researchers found that teachers main reservations about introducing ER to all levels was due to "the concern that there is insufficient curriculum time to accommodate anything extra" (p. 110). Literature should be placed at the heart of the classroom reading programme (Au, 1995) and the extensive reading programme should be seen as a major key for promoting literacy in the target language, not regarded as "an extra". In this paper we have explored some ways that the programme can be transformed by the adoption of a more dynamic social interactionist approach and by bringing to the

forefront, the aesthetic and affective dimensions of reading. However, before we can transform the programme, educators need to recognize the value of the programme and allow time for it in the curriculum. It needs to be envisioned first as a primary means for developing pupils' language and once this basic recognition is there, then time and attention needs to be given to making it worthwhile and meaningful to the students.

Acknowledgements

Many thanks to Catherine, Chan Yuet-po, Research Assistant, for assisting with the preparation of this paper.

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(Received: 3.8.00, accepted 18.9.00, revised 9.3.01)

Brief Critique on the Design of "Accelerated Schools" and Its Practicality in Hong Kong from Both a Leadership and Cultural Perspectives

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The "Hong Kong Accelerated Schools Project" has been initiated with the support from the Quality Education Fund since 1998. Whether it could be successfully implemented might be too early to be criticized. But before evaluating its effectiveness as a borrowing concept from the west, it is necessary to investigate how far this original school design approach has been initiated in the States and what we could perceive about the new idea from both a leadership and cultural perspectives with reference to some relevant literatures. This essay briefly describes the main tenets of the American school design of "Accelerated Schools". Then the approach is critically discussed from both a leadership and cultural perspectives to see if the approach can work in Hong Kong schools. A short conclusion is drawn to sum up the analysis.

從領導及文化觀點簡評《躍進學校》設計概念在香港實踐的可行性

自一九九八年始，香港躍進學校計劃在優質教育基金的贊助下首次在港推行，這個由西方借用的學校改革概念推行至今約有三年，但究竟是否能夠在香港學校有效實踐，直至目前為止還是未知之數。不過，其在美國推行多年的一些寶貴經驗，實在亦頗值得我們從不同的角度，包括領導和文化等觀點，去了解該概念在西方國家的實施現況，作為探討其在港能否有效推行的一點借鏡。本文略述躍進學校設計模式的基本理念，並嘗試從領導和文化兩個觀點去簡評其現有成效及提出一些在港實踐該改革概念的啟示。

The main tenets of the school design of "Accelerated Schools"

> *Accelerated schools often need to work out instructional schedules that allow time for regular staff interaction and meetings of cadres and the steering committee. They need adequate numbers of staff development days to accelerated schools priorities and the implementation of decisions. They need principals who actively support the accelerated schools philosophy and practices and will dedicate themselves to the school.... (Henry M. Levin, the founder of the school design, wrote in a quarterly newsletter of "Accelerated Schools", Vol. 5, Number 3, in 1996)*

In the above citation, we can notice how Levin outlines the approach of accelerated schools and how the practice can be better managed. Accelerated school principals' roles are important because they must understand and support the philosophy and practices of accelerated schools.

Jane McCarthy (1998) also asserts that an Accelerated School Project is an international movement, which attempts to restructure schools with high concentration of students in at-risk situations by utilizing school site decision making guided by action research.

With reference to some relevant articles (Levin, 1987; Levin 1988 a, b, & c; Levin, Henry, Hopfenberg & Wendy, 1991; Levin & McCarthy, 1995; Segal, & Zarrow, 1996; Wagner, 1997), the Accelerated School Project is a

comprehensive approach to school change designed to improve schooling for students in at-risk situations so that they may enter the education mainstream (McCarthy, 1998). Related to this, Slavin (1996) also advocates the concept of "Education for all" and helps to initiate the "Roots and Wings" as one of the "New American Schools" designs (Stringfield, Ross & Smith [Eds.], 1996) to help at-risk students in their learning in schools.

In theory, accelerated schools are designed to structure schools, which build on the strengths of all children and to accelerate their learning by making changes in curriculum, instruction and organization, which will facilitate academic and social progress. The philosophy of the design is based on three principles: unity of purpose, empowerment coupled with responsibility, and building on strengths.

In other words, the approach emphasizes high expectations, building on the strengths of all members of the school community, a commonly agreed unity of purpose, shared decision-making roles for each member of the school community, and an approach to teaching and learning which utilizes enriched and accelerated curriculum and instruction.

To achieve the goals, there are five steps in the systematic process for implementation. They are: take stock, develop vision, set priorities, create governance structures and an inquiry process.

In the process, 90% votes should be attained from the school community before the approach can be put into practice because a full commitment is essential for its success (McCarthy, 1998). Members of the school community are then empowered to build unity of purpose and develop vision, set priorities.

The governance structure consists of task forces, which will each be responsible for addressing a priority area, a steering committee composed of members of task forces, administration, parents, students, and finally, the school-as-a-whole. Task forces engage in a collaborative inquiry process in which they attempt to understand the nature of their challenge area. They search for possible solutions inside and outside the school. They synthesize solutions and pilot test selected solutions. Then they evaluate the effectiveness of these solutions. This initial stage represents a radical change in the ways schools make decisions.

The fundamental goal of the accelerated schools is to improve student achievement by providing powerful learning opportunities to all students. Therefore, newly launched accelerated schools often are very eager to learn how to implement powerful learning. Based on individual school needs, accelerated schools have begun to examine their own teaching strategies in relation to powerful learning. In this approach, the framework includes five components: authentic, interactive, learner-centred, inclusive, and continuous. In which, the construction of powerful learning experiences is an activity that must be connected to the development of the school as a learning community. As the school goes through the stage of the process, it is expected that the values and principles of accelerated schools could be embedded at all levels.

Discussion from a leadership perspective

Cited by Hoy and Miskel (1996:373-374), Bennis (1989) opined that leadership is like beauty: it is hard to define. Yukl (1994) shared most definitions and defines leadership as: Leadership involves a social influence process in which intentional influence is exerted by one individual over others to structure activities and relationships in a group or organization.

According to Sergiovanni (1987a, 1987b & 1990), he realizes five forces of leadership: technical, human, educational, symbolic and cultural. He points out that technical, human and educational forces are the basic attributes for a good leader. What more important is the inclusion of symbolic and cultural forces which an effective and successful leader should need. Viewing the future leadership for the schoolhouse, he also advocates the theories of moral leadership and building community in schools (Sergiovanni, 1992 & 1994). In which he argues that we need theories of schooling and school leadership that give more attention to bringing people together. We need a theory of leadership based on moral connections and which are grounded in cultural norms rather than psychological needs (Sergiovanni, 1996: 33-34).

Cheng (1995: 350-353) also makes a comparison of many scholars' work and concludes that effective transformational leadership is actually including the elements of charismatic leadership (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Dunham & Pierce, 1989) and cultural leadership (Schein, 1992; Sergiovanni & Corbally, 1986).

The Accelerated School Project relies greatly on the collaborative efforts of all members of the school community to effect change. However, it is reported that the results of many of these collaborative projects have not been encouraging (McCarthy, 1998). In many cases, collaborative efforts have suffered from a lack of specificity. The structural and support mechanism to facilitate change and collaboration have not been built into programmes. So things quickly resort back to the "status quo".

Another obstacle which has led to difficulty in implementing the new school design is the quality of principals and the principal succession practices used by the school district. By "principal succession practices", it means the principal selection and placement procedure, as well as the formal and informal staff development practices, evaluation, and support activities for principals when they begin work in their new schools (Wagner [Eds.], 1997).

Assessing the situation from a leadership perspective, some accelerated schools cannot achieve their goals because they lack well-designed and agreeable strategic plans. Some might have poor governance or management structure. The governance of the system is inconsistent and non-persistent. People within the community cannot have unity of purpose, shared vision or common interests. Even some principals do not have a good understanding of the concept of the approach. At some point, it is reported that some accelerated schools faced the departure of their principals. Worse still, as reported too, a principal might be replaced in a most casual fashion by someone who has not been carefully evaluated for their interest, experience, and probably success in leading the school.

Sister Georgia Christensen has investigated the characteristics of effective principals in accelerated schools and concludes that the principal in a traditional school is expected to manage, to react to compliance requirements, to serve automatically as the highest authority in the school, and to emphasize routine maintenance of school operations rather than transformation. As in the restructured school like the one in accelerated school design, she recommends that the principal is expected to be a transformational leader, to serve proactively in working on constant change and improvement, to facilitate collaboration, and to take prudent risks (Wagner [Eds.], 1997: 8-9).

In the same article, Christensen also identified 13 major behavioural categories of effective principals in accelerated schools. The first six categories in descending order are:

(1) Fostering the process of change including the values, principles, and practices;

(2) Supporting the staff in terms of collaboration, communication, staff initiative, and staff expertise;

(3) Promoting learning in terms of powerful learning activities;

(4) Promoting parental involvement;

(5) Providing resources;

(6) Modeling positive human relations skills... (Wagner [Eds.], 1997:9)

Levin (1997) also points out two extreme roles of accelerated school principals:

> *The first is that a strong principal is the major ingredient required for school success.... it is the principal's vision, choice of programs, supervision, and evaluation that get the job done..... The second extreme view presumes that it is the specific model of school reform and educational practices that must carry the day and that the principal must simply support that model.... that principals will adapt to the model, and the strength of the school reform will sustain the change....*
>
> (Wagner [Eds.], 1997:2)

As a recommendation to improve the situation from a leadership perspective, the leaders of accelerated schools should:

(1) be well aware of the situation and the contextual environment that he/she might encounter and the needs of the particular school community (including the students, the teachers, the parents, the community and the school-as-a-whole);

(2) be well informed, and who should understand and support the concept and philosophy of the school design;

(3) be prepared and trained to meet the needs of restructured schools generally and accelerated schools specifically;

(4) be put in place and matched to schools on the basis of specific school needs rather than on seniority, regular rotation, or superficial matching criteria;

(5) emphasize moral connections, evoke sacred images of what goes on, compel people to respond for internal rather than external reasons (Hopkins, 1996 & 2001;

Sergiovanni, 1996);

(6) strive to transform the school with the capacity for change that it becomes a center of enquiries that both teachers and students learn together, solve problems together and enquire together;

(7) continually see himself/herself as a designer not a crusader, a steward who seeks and oversees the broader purpose and direction of the organization, and a teacher who fosters learning for everyone and treats the school as a learning organization (Senge, 1990);

(8) be alert and try whatever ways to resolve any possible upcoming conflicts caused by: issues of purpose, issues of culture, issues of process and performance, and issues of people (Champy & Nohria, 2000) which are somehow having a relevant concern raised in the Accelerated Schools Project.

(9) take up the roles of an enabler (Prestine, 1991), a cultural leader (Schein, 1992, Sergiovanni & Corbally, 1986, Sergiovanni, 1987a), a charismatic leader (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Dunham & Pierce, 1989), a transformational leader (Bennis & Nanus, 1997; Cheng, 1995; Leithwood, 1995) or even a facilitative leader (Conley & Goldman, 1993; Leithwood, Jantzi & Steinbach, 1999) but not only a managerial leader, a reactive leader, a maintenance leader, nor an autocratic leader. In such a leadership, the principal must help staff members focus on developing and maintaining a collaborative, professional school culture, fostering teacher development, and helping staff solve problems more effectively;

(10) always be with openness to participation, diversity, conflict, reflection and mistakes (Patterson, 1993);

(11) lead as effective leaders who are able to foster and/or capitalize on periodic patterns that occur over time;

(12) be placed and evaluated timely in an accountability system that is specific to the type of school in which they are placed;

Fullan's (1993) propositions about "What's worth fighting for in headship" can be a good reference to sum up the views towards how leaders should lead in a change process, especially in a school improvement project like the "Accelerated Schools" design:

You Can't Mandate What Matters;
Change is a Journey not a Blueprint;
Problems are Our Friends;
Vision and Strategic Planning Come Later;
Individualism and Collectivism Must Have Equal Power;
Neither Centralization Nor Decentralization Works;
Connection with the Wider Environment is Critical for Success;
Every Person is a Change Agent.

(Fullan, 1993:21-22)

Discussion from a cultural perspective

According to Hoy and Miskel (1995:129), organizational culture is typically defined in terms of shared orientation that holds the unit together and gives it a distinctive identity. Hoy & Miskel (1995:139) also state that much of the early literature on school cultures is directed toward change and school improvement and assumes that understanding culture is a prerequisite to making schools more effective.

Robbins (1994) summarizes a number of important functions performed by the organization's culture:

- Culture has a boundary-defining function; it creates distinctions among organization.
- Culture provides the organization with a sense of identity.
- Culture facilitates the development of commitment to the group.
- Culture enhances stability in the social system.
- Culture is the social glue that binds the organization together; it provides the appropriate standards for behaviour.
- Culture serves to guide and shape the attitudes and behaviour of organization members.

But a strong culture can be either functional or dysfunctional. It can promote or impede effectiveness (Hoy & Miskel, 1995:135).

Referring to the situation in the Accelerated Schools Project, not all accelerated schools were doing well in line with the school design approach. Some schools even remained in their status quo where students were still at-risk. It was reported that some principals were managing the school too traditionally and collaborative efforts could not be achieved. There was the existence of a strong dysfunctional culture because of the problems of principal succession and the bureaucratic governance in the accelerated schools.

Hofstede (1991) has used five cultural dimensions to make a comparison of national cultures among 64 countries and the finding shows that USA has a dominating high individualism, low power distance, low uncertainty avoidance, low long term orientation, but only a relatively high masculinity national culture. Perhaps the more we know about the cultural background of the nation, the clearer we can understand the unfavourable situations in accelerated schools. The identified culture carrying the implications on accelerated schools may include:

- School education is for individuals; children learn to think in terms of "I". There is a strong culture of "Doing one's own thing" and ideologies of individual freedom. Laws and rights are supposed to be the same for all. Education is task-oriented (Hofstede, 1991: 50-77). Schools are good for those averaged students or high achievers who have strong self-respect and high self-esteem but may not be effective for those at-risk students who also inherit strong individualist culture.
- The school culture is short term oriented. Teachers and students are treated equal. Teachers expect initiatives from students in class. Hierarchy in organizations means inequality of roles. Decentralization is popular. Subordinates expect to be consulted and the ideal boss is resourceful democrat (Hofstede, 1991: 23-46). Actually the Accelerated Schools Project can make use of these cultural essences that principals and teachers can be mobilized to conduct initiatives in schools. The school community should give support to the schools while the principals should pay attention to a well- constructed governance system with adequate resource support and sufficient staff development programmes.
- People in low uncertainty avoidance society accept that uncertainty is a normal feature of life and each day is accepted as it comes. People demand low stress but show aggression and emotions. People feel easy and comfortable when lazy; hard-working only when needed. Additionally, people seldom have long term goals in their culture. So that is why we can find unsuccessful implementation in some accelerated schools where principals, teachers, students, parents and the whole school community accept their status quo. The school-as-a-whole is only a myth. When one school principal performs not according or matching the direction of the school authority will be replaced. The problem of principal succession is being regarded as one of the obstacle of success.

So an enhancement towards a stronger uncertainty avoidance culture might help in some cases. For those at-risk students, students may feel more comfortable in structured learning situations and environments. But the curriculum has to be flexible and planned because students might need the acceptance of familiar risks before they can take a further step and develop their learning motivation. In addition, those low achieved students might be fear of ambiguous situations and unfamiliar risks (Hofstede, 1991: 109-136).

Moreover, much of what makes a principal effective in an accelerated school is determined by:

(1) the principal's desire to embrace the philosophy, process and practices of Accelerated Schools (or viewing from a cultural perspective, the principal should bring along a clear vision, his values, beliefs and expectations which match the philosophy underlined in the school design and help teachers and the school community-as-a-whole to realize the necessity of change and develop the accelerated school mission and adaptability culture (Dennison, 1990) of their own);

(2) specific professional development experiences that are tailored to Accelerated School leadership needs (or in cultural sense, the principals should demonstrate his expertise by setting up role models so that charismatic or cultural leadership can take place because principals are being recognized as what Sergiovanni (1987a) called Chiefs or High Priests);

(3) a supportive school environment that enables the principal to learn how to pursue the role effectively (or by cultural vi[illegible] a supportive school environment means the development of collaborative efforts among the members of the whole school community. In such a strong collaborative culture, or in Dennison's words, the involvement and consistency culture, an integrated, reliable, and efficient organization can be highly effective).

Conversely, principal succession can bring in "new bloods" which can revitalize and energize the accelerated schools. Sometimes we can hear that a charismatic principal can turn the school around because he/she can make use of his/her experience, knowledge, values, beliefs, work style and even through appearance to create norms, expectations, shared visions and work routines in the school community.

The practicality of the accelerated school design in Hong Kong

Regarding the recent major problems in Hong Kong education system, there is a proportion around 14% of the total school population (Education Commission, 1990: 24-25) for whom the education provided for their peers is not wholly suitable. They need special educational provision to help them overcome learning or behavioural problems they may have. Other problems identified by the Education Commission Report No. 4 are: fragmented and overcrowded curriculum, over-emphasis on rote-memorization and on the linear mastery of decontextualized skills, lack of differentiation in teaching, learning and assessment, paucity of resources for individual and group learning, lack of whole school approach to many aspects of teaching, learning and assessment, lack of a tradition of school-based staff development and curriculum development, lack of coordination across sectors of education, etc. (Clark, Scarino & Brownell, 1994: 10-11).

As stated above, the initiation of effective Accelerated Schools Approach depends on a lot of favourable factors, such as the requirement of a strong collaborative school culture with principals of adaptability, mission, involvement and consistency leadership, etc. However, in the case of Hong Kong, these internal factors, although may have difficulties in school actual operation, can still be managed and handled by devoted school-as-a-whole community if everything is under control.

But the more important external factors which cause much limitation to Hong Kong situation is the strong Chinese culture of low uncertainty avoidance and the bad effect of long term orientation. In this culture, according to Hofstede's explanation, the anxiety levels are low. People who behave emotionally and noisily are socially disapproved of. Students of special needs are totally not accepted by school norms and regulations.

More about the characteristics of this culture, people seldom show aggression. People give the impression of being quiet, easy-going, indolent, controlled, lazy. Norms are expressed in basic terms, like being honest and being polite, but allowing a wide range of personal interpretation as to what this means in a given case. There is a lack of mental stimuli in study and work.

With my past experience in primary education of over twenty years and within which there are ten years of principalship, the description about a low uncertainty avoidance society is conditionally true to Hong Kong, especially those people involved in under-achieved schools, including the principals, the teachers, the students and the parents. People are reluctant to change. Principals are incompetent or incapable to cope with new initiatives. They are afraid to lead. Teachers, on the other hand, try to stick to their traditional roles. They escape from innovations. They have a concrete belief of their expertise and that is why they deny any deficiency or refuse to staff development. Students are passive and they get used to their status quo of being labeled as low achievers. They lack of learning motivation. They feel security in their peers. Parents shoulder the responsibility to the teachers and the school. They have no time to deal with their children.

The Government seems to have introduced equality and equity into the school system. They provide the same, or nearly the same, human and economic resources (manpower in terms of teacher-student ratio, school and class grant in terms of recurrent and non-recurrent grants or special grants, etc.) and standardized curriculum and assessment systems to all schools in Hong Kong, disregarding whatever they are, such as bisessional or whole-day, government or subsidized, primary or secondary.

As a response to whether the approach can work in Hong Kong schools, I have a reservation to say "Yes". The present government policy on standard curriculum implementation, public assessments and school governance systems is still very bureaucratic. Flexibility, as proposed in the school management reform in Hong Kong, the School Management Initiative (SMI) introduced in 1991, is apparently approved. School system is still highly centralized. School-based curriculum design is only for cosmetic purposes because all schools have to undergo a centralized curriculum. Although, most recently, there has been a call for curriculum reform which introduces flexibility in curriculum planning and design (Curriculum Development Council, 2000). However, the poor achievers in normal mixed ability schools still have to catch up with the formal progress, sit in a unified public examination at the end of each key stage and pave their way for academic advancement.

Discussed from both a leadership and cultural perspectives, the global reform wave has demanded initiation,

adaptation and relevant changes in schools as well as the vision-building leaders and collective individuals, both structurally and culturally. With regard to the introduction of the accelerated school conception into the current phenomenon, a brief report from a case study might help to give illuminations to the determination of its practicality in Hong Kong schools.

A few months ago, I did a case study on one of the pilot schools in the accelerated school project. Since this is only a single case. It does not intend to represent or generalize the world but to some extent, it demonstrates its particularity because it can generate some understandings and practical theories which can be called "fuzzy generalizations" (Bessey, 1999: 51-53). The triangulation of research evidence, including data analysis from interviews, observations and document study, also informs me that the school is not moving in the way that the accelerated school design intends.

In the findings, the core group people, who are the middle managers or senior teachers of the leading team, had a similar view with those of the teachers. Although they were aware of the school situations, they were well informed and understanding and supportive the concept, they were trained to lead the reform, they were put in place, they could play the roles as designers, stewards, enablers, cultural leaders, etc., they paid attention to conflicting issues, they tried to be open and effective... they were not authorized the power to carry out change. They told me that they were very disappointed in the change process. They were told to lead the project as change agents but they did not receive sufficient support or guidance throughout the project. They said that the external project consultants were very nice people but they were too distanced from them. Only two representatives of the core team members could attend the workshops but the rest did not receive adequate training and they were incompetent to carry out the reform. They said that they had real difficulties in implementing the project. They also blamed that although the decision made for joining the project was due to a majority vote, they did not have any say in the decision process. They knew clearly that they had to maintain a superficially good relationship with their super-ordinates. They did not want to break the harmonious relationship with the school authority concerned. They also criticized that it was not practical and worthwhile to use up so many human resources for the one-off powerful learning day. They said that although students seemed to be motivated and enjoyable in the try-out lessons, everything returned to its normal status quo as soon as the activity ended. Teachers continuously complained about their increased workload but no one seemed to have spent longer hours at school after work.

It was no difference for the principal who was, in principle, very supportive to her teachers. However, she admitted that she had difficulties in allocating her time in her daily school affairs. She was overloaded with new policies and changes everyday. She knew that she could not do much for the accelerated school project because she supposed the senior teachers and teachers could carry out their teaching and learning reform themselves. She would try her best to provide resources and support to them. She assigned the deputy head to be accountable for the project and this caused stress and discomfort to her subordinates. The school bore a big cultural problem of not having a shared mission and adaptability culture, not having an effective leader who can do what Sergiovanni called Chiefs or High Priests, and it did not embody a strong collaborative culture or a kind of involvement and consistency culture that caused a total disastrous to the new reform.

As a reflection, with the experience demonstrated in the case study, I might conclude that the practicality of the accelerated school design in Hong Kong context is not optimistic, unless there are signs of functional leaders who have visions and missions for his/her profession, showing compassion in his/her change journey for the improvement of the school where adaptability, involvement and consistency collaborative culture is aspired among the practitioners led by a mission-driven chief, a steward leader.

If this Accelerated School Approach is taken as a pilot scheme echoing the "think big start small" motto where only a few schools are carefully selected based on a goof-fit match, and allowed to join in and the participating schools are provided with sufficient training, resources and supports, led by effective change leaders and supported by a collaborative culture, received government's permission with special considerations and arrangements, I think it is plausible. Apart from this, it might be more favourable if the participating school principals themselves are vision-building leaders, who share the same belief with the school practitioners and all of them are adequately equipped with the new knowledge and skills, who possess charismatic and cultural leadership and who can solicit support from the governing body, teachers, parents and the community.

Short conclusion

The Accelerated Schools Project is a recognized ideology that it stimulates the thought of school restructuring. The approach emphasizes high expectations on students. Accelerated schools may be able to improve student achievement by providing powerful learning opportunities to all students. The concept brings a belief of "All students can learn" but whether the goal is achievable or not will depend on the following variables: full government support, stable and effective cultural leadership in principals, shared unity of purpose, vision and goals among the school community, school-as-a-whole collaborative inquiry process, sufficient and advance staff development for principals and teachers, the construction of powerful learning experiences in students. The experiences gained in American accelerated schools may shed some lights to the school reform movement in Hong Kong. Although this article is critiqued based on only both a leadership and cultural perspectives, there can still be room for more discussions from other perspectives like political, structural and social on issues like how the conditions of the school can give help in facilitating the change process which in the end, can lead to quality teaching and learning in school education.

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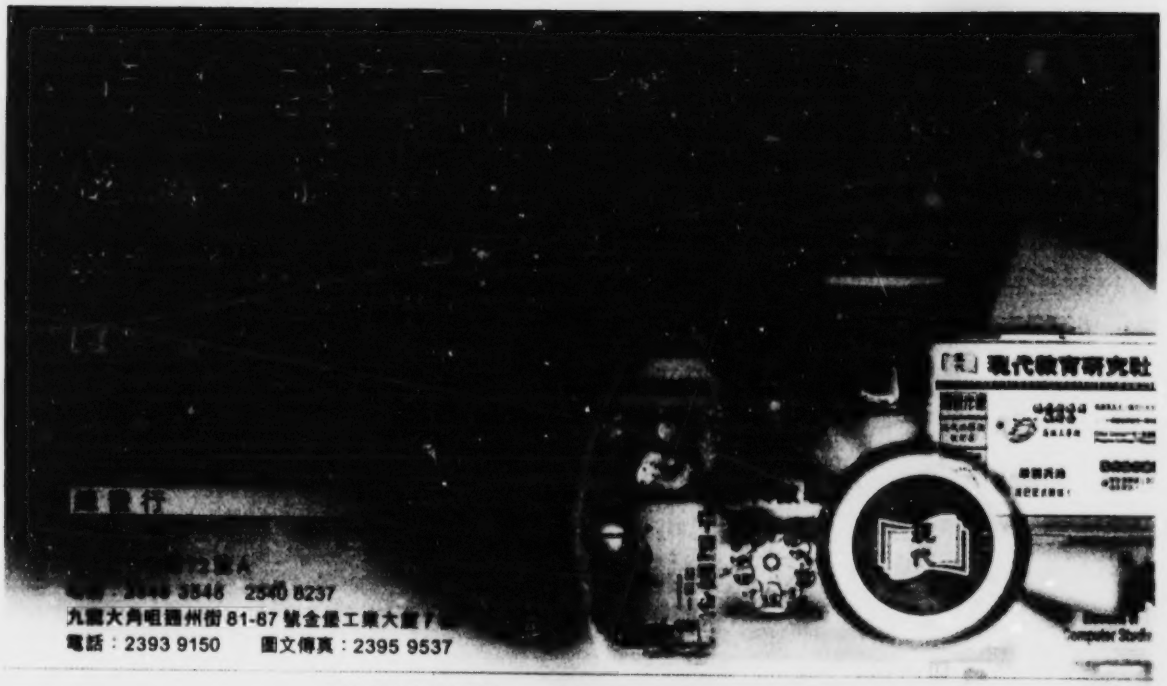
(Received 15.11.00, accepted 30.12.00, revised18.04.01)



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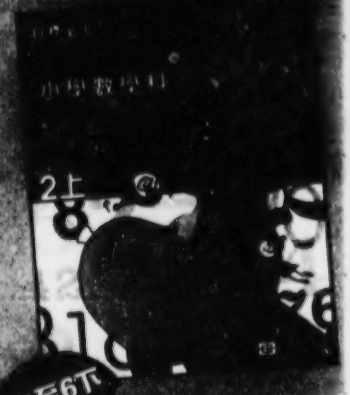

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LONGMAN PUBLISHING

124/05/98

NEW HORIZONS
In Education

No. 44 November 2001

教育曙光

第四十四期
二零零一年十一月

香港教師會
教育學報

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION
HONG KONG TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

120

香 港 教 師 會

香港教師會於一九三四年成立，以促進教育同工之間的密切合作、提高教育專業人員的地位、維護會員的權益、增進會員的福利、加強國際間的了解為宗旨。香港教師會除了是本港一個教育團體外，同時亦是多個國際性組織的會員，如世界教師專業組織聯合會及國際閱讀協會會員。

香港教師會的週年學術活動有：(一)教育研究大會，如一九九七年舉辦的「優質教育新挑戰：愉快的教與學」研究大會、一九九八年舉辦的「質素保證視學如何提升學校教育質素？」研究大會、一九九九年舉辦的「邁向2000年教師何去何從？」研究大會及二零零零年舉辦的「廿一世紀教師的切身問題」研討會等；(二)本港教育專題研討會，如「幼稚園、小學與中學的銜接研討會」、「特殊學校音樂教育研討會」、「如何為成績稍遜的學生提供有效學習研討會」、「教室管理的科學與藝術」及「母語教學問題及解決方法研討會」等；(三)定期出版教育曙光。近年舉辦的國際學術活動，則有一九九二及一九九九年主辦的海峽兩岸四地學術研究會及一九九八年主辦第三屆東北亞教育論壇。

教 育 曙 光

*教育曙光*是一份香港教師會出版的教育學報，每期均請專家評審；每年元月及十一月出版，分發全港幼稚園、小學、中學及大專院校。

*教育曙光*以促進專業發展與教學實踐為宗旨，每期均刊登具實踐和研究價值的文章。文章的範疇包括專題探討本港當前教育問題的剖析、教學、輔導及學校行政的研究、教育新趨勢和新意念的介紹等。

歡迎教師、學校行政人員、輔導工作者、教育學者及研究人員投稿。詳情請參閱每期刊登的徵稿啟示。

*教育曙光*歡迎各教育機構免費訂閱。請將訂閱表格及郵費寄來香港教師會。

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The Hong Kong Teachers' Association (HKTA), founded in 1934, aims at developing close cooperation among educational workers, promoting the professional status of teachers, protecting the rights and improving the welfare of its members and strengthening international understanding of teacher organizations. Apart from being a Hong Kong-based educational body, HKTA is also a member of international organizations such as Education International and the International Reading Association.

The academic activities of HKTA include: (1) the annual education conference, such as the 1997 Conference on New Challenge of Quality Education: Pleasurable and Effective Teaching and Learning, the 1998 Conference on Promoting Quality Assurance Inspection and School Quality, the 1999 Conference on Towards 2000 the Right Way for Teachers and the 2000 Conference on Concerned matters of Teachers of 21st Century; (2) Seminars on local educational issues such as: "Continuity in Preschool, Primary and Secondary Education", "Music Education in Special Schools", "Effective Learning for the Less Able Students", "The Science and Arts of Classroom Management" and "Seminars on the Problems and Solutions of Mother-Tongue Teaching"; and (3) the publication of New Horizons in Education. In 1992 and 1999 HKTA is proud to be the chief organizer and the host for The First and Fifth Educational Conference of China, Taiwan, Hong Kong & Macau and hosted the 1998 Third North-East Asia Teachers' Forum.

NEW HORIZONS IN EDUCATION

New Horizons is a refereed journal of education published in May and November by HKTA. It is distributed to kindergartens, primary and secondary schools and teriary institutions in Hong Kong.

New Horizons is intended as a forum to stimulate and enhance professional development and practice in education. We publish papers that speak directly to practical school and classroom concerns as well as papers that are based on systematic inquiries into educational issues and practices, including those related to the announced theme(s). We also publish presentations of new developments and innovative ideas tried out in schools, in Hong Kong or elsewhere.

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教　育　曙　光

第四十四期，二零零一年十一月

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* 用英文撰寫

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A total of 22 manuscripts were received for consideration in this issue. Twelve could pass the double blind review process and were revised in time. The average reviewing period was less than 6 weeks in this issue, actual time ranging from 1 day to 13 weeks, depending on individual reviewer's cooperation.

Readers can access the abstracts of our past issues (starting from the 1967 issue) through the international data base ERIC or the internet website address: (http://www1.fed.cuhk.edu.hk/en/nh/nhindex.htm or www.hktc.ed.gov.hk). Readers can also get a complimentary hard copy of the journal by sending an A4 size self-address return envelope with sufficient postage (HK$7.20 local or US$3.00 equivalent cost for overseas) to: HK Teachers Association, 242 Nathan Rd., 7/F, National Court, Kowloon, Hong Kong.

徵稿

*教育曙光*整年徵稿，由2000年開始每年刊登兩期。歡迎教師、學校行政人員、輔導工作者、教育學者及研究人員投稿，發表他們從研究和實踐所得的新思維和新啟示。如及時接納（及修訂），將於每年五月或十一月刊登。

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Please send papers to: The Editor, ***New Horizons***, Hong Kong Teachers' Association,
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Emotional Intelligence, Students' Attitudes towards Life and the Attainment of Education Goals: An Exploratory Study in Hong Kong**

Chi-Sum WONG **Ping-Man WONG** **So-Ling CHAU**

Chinese University of Hong Kong Hong Kong Institute of Education Hang Seng School of Commerce

Emotional Intelligence has been a hot topic for both parents and educators in Hong Kong in recent years. Conceptually, emotional intelligence should be related to students' life satisfaction, positive attitudes towards life, and the attainment of various education goals. However, despite its growing popularity, there is relatively little empirical evidence showing these relationships. The purpose of the present study is to provide some empirical evidence to examine these effects in Hong Kong. A group of 30 university students helped generate emotional intelligence items and 20 of these items were selected empirically from the responses of another 100 university students. Then a sample of 225 six formers completed a questionnaire which measured their perceived emotional intelligence, life satisfaction, and powerlessness in their lives. Their form masters evaluated their performance in moral and social development. Attainment in intellectual education of these students was estimated by their HKCEE results. As expected, results indicated that emotional intelligence is positively related to life satisfaction, and performance in moral, social and intellectual development. It is also negatively related to powerlessness in life. Limitations for this study and implications for future emotional intelligence research are discussed.

情緒智商、生活滿足感及教育目標：一個香港的探索性研究

近年情緒智商成為香港的家長和教育工作者的熱門話題，理論上，學生的情緒智商應與其生活滿足感、正面的生活態度及不同的教育目標有關，但有關的實徵証據則不多，本研究的目的是在香港探索這幾個概念的關係，我們先以三十名大學生提供情緒智商的測量項目，然後以一百名大學生的資料選取其中最佳的二十項，接著我們請225名預科生回答問卷，而他們的班主任則評估他們在德育和群育的表現，智育表現則以他們中學會考成績為指標，結果証明情緒智商與生活滿足感、生活態度、德、群和智育有關。最後，我們討論了本研究的限制及未來研究的方向。

Emotional Intelligence (EI) has been a hot topic for both parents and educators in Hong Kong in recent years. Many parents have sent their children to various EI training courses after school and some primary schools have even incorporated EI training in their school curriculum. For example, there is an institute-school program initiated by "Hiphang", a collaborative network of the Hong Kong Institute of Education and local schools. The Department of Educational Management and Professional Support and 14 local primary schools organized an education camp in the summer of 1999 to provide student leadership training to more than 200 senior primary pupils. This training program that applied the EI concept, was sponsored by the Quality Education Fund and most of the camping activities were devised by experts, lecturers and school teachers (Wong & Kwok, 2001). Specifically, the 14 primary schools nominated students in primary five and six with leadership potentials to the education camp. Training activities, designed according to EI and leadership abilities, were conducted. These students would be observed and evaluated during the following years to see how these training activities help develop their EI and leadership abilities.

** The work described in this paper was partially supported by a grant from the Research Grants Council of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region (Project No. CUHK4038/00H).

Other similar attempts of applying the concept of EI to enhance students' all-rounded developments are also evident. In an interview with a group of local primary and secondary school principals, it is noted that there are examples of schools to adopt Gardner's (1993) ideas of multiple intelligences as guiding principles in developing their school curriculum and extra-curricula activities. There are also studies and programs focusing on relationships between individual components of EI and developments of studies (歐陽綺文, 1996; 余德淳, 1997).

Despite the growing popularity and cultivation of the EI concept into educational practice, and unlike other parts of the world where there are lots of EI studies (e.g., Gore, 2000; Bar-On & Parker, 2000; Bodine & Crawford, 1999; Finley, 2000), there is little local empirical evidence directly relating the concept of EI to students' performance or developments. The purpose of this study therefore attempts to enrich the understanding of EI in the local context by examining the relationships between EI and students' life satisfaction, and their attainment of education goals in Hong Kong.

Emotional Intelligence and Its Major Dimensions

Psychologists uncover "intelligences" and group them mainly into three clusters namely, abstract intelligence, concrete intelligence and social intelligence (Young, 1996). EI has its roots in the concept of "social intelligence" first identified by Thorndike in 1920. Thorndike defined social intelligence as "the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls - to act wisely in human relations. " Similarly, Sternberg (1983, 1985) argued that argued that human intelligence could be classified in three major components, namely analytical intelligence, creative intelligence, and social and practical intelligence. Gardner (1993) further includes inter- and intrapersonal intelligences in his theory of multiple intelligences. According to him, the two intelligences comprise social intelligence.

Salovey and Mayer (1990) defines EI as "the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and action." More recently, Mayer and Salovey (1997) modifies this definition as "the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth" (p. 10). Similarly, Goleman who makes the EI concept popular because of his book published in 1995 adopts a five-dimension definition of which four of them are similar to the abilities proposed by Mayer and Salovey. These four dimensions of EI are in perfect agreement with a recent review of the EI literature conducted by Davies, Stankov and Roberts (1998). Specifically, the following four EI dimensions appear to be common to the definitions provided by different EI researchers such as Mayer and Salovey, Goleman, and Davies, et al.:

(1) Appraisal and expression of emotion in the self

This relates to the individual's ability to understand his/her emotion deep inside and be able to express this emotion naturally. People who are high in this ability will sense their emotion deep inside and acknowledge them well ahead of other. In Goleman's (1995) term, this dimension is labeled as "Knowing one's emotions". Goleman described it as, "Self-awareness - recognizing a feeling as it happens - is the keystone of emotional intelligence....the ability to monitor feelings from moment to moment is crucial to psychological insight and self-understanding. An inability to notice our true feelings leaves us at their mercy. People with greater certainty about their feelings are better pilots of their lives, having a sure sense of how they really feel about personal decisions from whom to marry to what job to take." (p. 10).

(2) Appraisal and recognition of emotion in others

This relates to the individual's ability to feel and understand the emotion of people around them. People who are high in this ability will be much more sensitive to the feelings of emotions of others as well as reading their minds. In Goleman's (1995) term, this dimension is labeled as "Recognizing emotions in others". Goleman described it as, "Empathy, another ability that builds on

emotional self-awareness, is the fundamental "people skill"....People who are empathic are more attuned to the subtle social signals that indicate what others need or want. This makes them better at callings such as the caring professions, teaching, sales, and management." (p. 10).

(3) Regulation of emotion in the self and others

This relates to the ability of a person to regulate his/her emotion when s/he is in bad psychological mood. A person high in this ability would be able to bounce back more quickly during psychological distress. This dimension is sometimes interpreted as "self-motivation" or the ability of a person to be self-encouraging and motivate oneself. In Goleman's (1995) term, this dimension is labeled as "Managing emotions". Goleman described it as, "Handling feelings so they are appropriate is an ability that builds on self-awareness....People who are poor in this ability are constantly battling feelings of distress, while those who excel in it can bounce back far more quickly from life's setbacks and upsets." (p. 10).

(4) Use of emotion to facilitate performance

This relates to the ability of the person to make use of their emotions and direct them towards constructive activities and personal performance. A person who has high ability in this aspect would be able to keep their behaviors under control when they are extremely happy or unhappy. In Goleman's (1995) term, this dimension is labeled as "Motivating oneself". Goleman described it as, "...marshaling emotions in the service of a goal is essential for paying attention, for self-motivation and mastery, and for creativity. Emotional self-control - delaying gratification and stifling impulsiveness - underlies accomplishment of every sort. And being able to get into the "flow" state enables outstanding performance of all kinds. People who have this skill tend to be more highly productive and effective in whatever they undertake." (p. 10)

On top of these four dimensions of EI, we would like to include a fifth dimension which, we think, is an important domain of the EI construct. Goleman (1995) added the ability of a person to handle relationship as an independent dimension of the EI construct. Goleman described it as, "The art of relationships is, in large part, skill in managing emotions in others....These are the abilities that undergird popularity, leadership, and interpersonal effectiveness. People who excel in these skills do well at anything that relies on interacting smoothly with others; they are social stars." (p. 10). Since EI originates from the construct of social intelligence and the ability to form and handle relationship should be an important indicator of whether an individual is socially intelligent. This also agrees with the intrapersonal and interpersonal classification of social intelligence used by Gardner (1993). While "knowing one's emotion," "managing one's emotion, " and "regulating one's emotion" all concern with the person's ability to deal with emotions from within, "recognizing emotions in others" concerns with the person's ability to deal with others. The inclusion of "handling interpersonal relationships" completes the "interpersonal intelligence" portion and makes the domain of the EI construct more well-defined. In a logical sense, a person who has good understanding of his/her emotions, and be able to regulate and motivate himself/herself would also have a high chance of having good social relationship with others. As a result, we include this fifth dimension into our definition of the EI construct:

(5) Handling interpersonal relationships

This relates to the person's ability to handle their relationship with others. A person who is high in this ability will be appreciated by his/her friends and well-received by others. They would interact smoothly with others by handling the emotions that arise during interpersonal interactions.

In contrast to other intelligences, Goleman and many other researchers believe that training can enhance EI. According to Young (1996) and Goleman (1995), in the USA, grade school teachers have been teaching the rudiments of EI since 1978. For examples, the development of the Self Science Curriculum and the teaching of classes such as "social development", "social and emotional learning" and "personal intelligence " all aimed at raising the level of social and emotional competence. In 1990s in particular, various EI training techniques and programs for family and school education

have been developed (e.g., Shapiro, 1997). Social scientists also begin to uncover the relationship of EI to other phenomena such as leadership (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995), group performance (Williams & Sternberg, 1988), individual performance, interpersonal/ social exchange, managing change and conducting performance evaluation (Goleman, 1995). Goleman (1995) therefore contends that "emotional intelligence, the skills that help people harmonize should become increasingly valued as a workplace asset in the years to come".

In the past few years, a lot of education researchers have argued that enhancing students' EI will enhance students' abilities in learning. For examples, Henley and Long (1999) showed that helping impulsive-aggressive youth who are devoid of EI could enhance their self-control and subsequent effectiveness in learning. Bocchina (1999) argued that students with better skills to understand and manage emotions may be more effective to learn from their experience because they have better sense of self-coaching. Lapidus (1998) showed that a program aimed at developing children's EI could enhance their readiness for learning. However, there is some reservation about the application of EI at the school environment. For example, McCluskey (1997) argues that given the current educational paradigm, such "skills" will hardly be effectively developed in schools. Thus, more related empirical studies on EI are still needed before its wider use in school.

The application of the EI concept in the school environment is even more preliminary in Hong Kong. It is the purpose of this study to contribute to a better understanding of the effects of EI on students by providing more empirical evidence in the local context.

Attitudes towards Life and Attainment of Education Goals

This study attempts to study the correlation between EI and (1) students' attitudes towards life and (2) students' attainment of education goals in Hong Kong. These two relationships are chosen for study because of two major reasons. First, by nature of its meaning as explained below in the section of Research Qeustions, EI should be related to these two groups of variables. Second, the relationships between EI and these variables are of utmost importance to parents, schools and government administrators in aspects ranging from training program or curriculum design to policy making in education. If EI is positively related to students' life satisfaction and attitude, and attainment of some education goals, it is worthwhile for more effort in searching or designing effective EI training programs for students.

For students' attitudes towards life, this study concentrates on two variables, namely life satisfaction and feeling of powerlessness in life. Life satisfaction has received a lot research attention in the education literature. This is an important variable in education because it is related to students psychological well-being (e.g., Hermon & Hazler, 1999; Simpson et al., 1996), social relationships and self-concepts (e.g., Benjamin & Hollings, 1997; Leung & Leung, 1992). In recent years, there appears to be a consensus of the Hong Kong community that it is important to foster a happy learning experience for students. In other words, education reform should ensure a satisfactory attitude of students towards their learning experience and their lives. Another attitudinal variable that has received a lot of research attention in the education literature is the students' feeling of powerlessness towards their lives. As described by Pearlin and Schooler (1978), powerlessness is the extent to which one regards one's life-chances as being fatalistically ruled in contrast to as being under one's own control. This is an indicator of alienation and isolation in life mastery that may influence students' sense of belonging to their community (e.g., Shoho, 1996), drug/ alcohol abuse (e.g., Nam, 1994), and the negative emotions of sadness and fear (e.g., Roseman et al., 1995).

As for the ideal goals of education, there is little debate among scholars in the field that good education should be balanced, taking care of the overall development of students in various aspects. That is why Bloom's (1956, 1964) three domains in education namely, cognitive, affective and psychomotor are identified and frequently elaborated in related western literature. On the other hand, Chinese educators usually like to advocate students' development in terms of five domains namely, moral, intellectual, physical, social, and aesthetic (Huang, 1992). In Hong Kong, the Special Administrative Region Government follows the line of thinking of the Chinese scholars and the five domains are claimed in most of the official documents as her aims of

education (Education Commission, 1999; Quality Education Fund, 1999). In other words, the goals of education should include students' development in moral, intellectual, physical, social and aesthetic domains.

Research Questions

Conceptually speaking, one's EI level should be related to one's life satisfaction and one's positive attitude towards life because people with high EI are able to (1) motivate themselves to make their life more productive (self-motivation), (2) better control their negative emotions (control and regulation of emotions), and (3) enjoy better interpersonal relationships. For life satisfaction, proponents of EI have argued that it should be positively related to EI and several empirical studies conducted in western countries have provided evidence for this positive relationship (e.g., Ciarrochi, et al., 2000; Martinez-Pons, 1997; Rockhill & Greener, 1999). Similarly, EI should be related to one's feeling of powerlessness in life mastery. According to the definitions of various EI dimensions, people with high EI (1) are better pilots of their lives and have a sure sense of how they really feel about personal decisions (i.e., knowing one's emotions); (2) can bounce back far more quickly from life's setbacks and upsets (i.e., managing emotions); and (3) do well at anything that relies on interacting smoothly with others (i. e., handling emotions in interpersonal relationships). In other words, individuals with high EI will enjoy better relationships with others, have a better control over their own life, and be able to keep away from bad emotions and feelings. Thus, conceptually, EI should be negatively related to the feeling of powerlessness in life mastery. In short, EI should have positive and negative relationships with life satisfaction and powerlessness in life mastery, respectively.

For attainment of education goals, EI seems to be beneficial at least to the moral, intellectual and social domains in conceptual sense. First, students with high EI may perform better on moral development because they are more aware of their own needs and are able to control their impulsive emotions and behaviors. They are both sensitive to their own emotions and others' feelings and easier to show empathy to other people. Thus, they may have "high self-esteem, positive self-concept and strength of character to resist various temptations of the society" (definition of moral development by the Quality Education Fund, 1999). Second, high EI students are able to motivate themselves and concentrate on their normal study because they are better in delaying gratification and stifling impulsiveness. These students can focus on their studies when it is necessary for them to do so. For examples, they can better concentrate and motivate themselves when they are doing homework or studying for their examinations. Therefore, they may perform better in intellectual development, especially when academic results are used as indicator of intellectual development. Finally, as high EI students can control their temper in a more appropriate way, being more sensitive to others' feelings, and have better interpersonal skills, they will have better relationships with people around them. Thus, they may perform better in social development.

To summarize, our research questions can be represented by the two hypotheses. The first hypothesis states that students' EI is positively related to their attitudes towards their lives, while the second hypothesis states that students' EI is positively related to their attainment of education goals in moral, social and intellectual domains.

Method:
Development of the Emotional Intelligence Items

The first step of this study was to develop a workable EI measure for Hong Kong students. There are some existing measures of EI but they do not appear to be suitable for studying students in Hong Kong. For examples, Carson, Carson and Philips (1997) developed a 14-items measure of Goleman's five EI dimensions and Carson and Carson (1998) used this measure in examining the relationship between EI and career commitment in a sample of 75 nurses. Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, and Palfai (1995) developed a thirty-item Trait Meta-Mood Scale and Martinex-Pons (1997) has used this measure on 108 parents, teachers, and administrators in two public elementary schools. Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (1997) developed an EI measure that required respondents to react to various types of items in a computer program. It took more than an hour for the respondents to complete the measure and the psychometric properties of this measure have not been reported. A more

comprehensive review of the existing measures is reported by Davies et al. (1998). For all the existing measures, they are developed in Western countries and many measurement items may be culturally specific. It is not clear whether these measures will be applicable to Chinese students. For example, the computer program developed by Mayer et al. (1997) contains different types of emotions described in English terms and Western music in assessing respondents' recognition and management of emotions. These English terms and music may be unfamiliar to Hong Kong students. Thus, it is necessary to develop a workable EI measure for Hong Kong students.

To develop an usable EI measure for Hong Kong students, a group of 30 university students in Hong Kong was invited to participate in this study. They were explained about the concept of EI and given the chance to raise questions and to discuss about the exact meaning of various EI dimensions. Then they were asked to write descriptive statements, behavior and activities that could differentiate students with high EI according to the definition of EI. The advantage of using students to generate items is that resulting statements could be easily understood by the student population that we want to study. The face validity of the items generated was examined by the authors of this study. After combining similar statements and deleting statements that were too specific, e.g., a high emotional intelligent person is able to clam down his/her younger brother's temper while maintaining a good relationship with him, 50 items remained. Another group of 100 university students was invited to complete a questionnaire. The questionnaire contained the 50 EI items and the two criterion variables specified in our first hypothesis. The first criterion variable was the 9-item life satisfaction measure constructed by Campbell, Converse and Rodgers (1976) which is hypothesized to be positively related to EI. The second criterion variable was the 7-item powerlessness (towards one's own life) measure by Pearlin and Schooler (1978) which is hypothesized to be negatively related to EI. The response format for life satisfaction and powerlessness items was 7-point Likert-type scale, while the response format for the EI items was 5-point Likert-type scale. Since we are interested in developing an overall EI measure at this exploratory stage, the item-to-total (i.e., the summation score of all the 50 items) correlations were calculated for all the 50 EI items in order to select the most useful items. The reliability estimate, i.e., the coefficient alpha and the relationship between EI and the two criteria were compared for (1) all the 50 items, and (2) the 20 items with the largest item-to-total correlations. Results were very similar both in terms of reliability estimates and the expected relationships with the two criteria. Thus we concluded that the 20-items could be used as an EI measure for Hong Kong students. These 20 items are shown in the Appendix. Reliability estimates, descriptive statistics and the correlations among the variables for this sample are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics, Relibailities, and Correlations Among Variables of the University Sample

	Mean	S.D.	1. EI	2. LS	3. POW
1. Emotional Intelligence (EI)	3.63	.48	(.88)		
2. Life Satisfaction (LS)	5.11	.76	.35**	(.90)	
3. Powerlessness (POW)	4.49	.72	-.34**	-.48**	(.60)

Note: +p<.10; *p<.05; **p<.01; figures in diagonals are coefficient alphas

Sample

The second step of this study was to apply the EI items to secondary students and examine the relationship of EI with the attainment of various education goals in this student population. Participants were 225 students in the lower and upper sixth form studying in eight classes of a matriculation school in the Shatin district of Hong Kong. These students were invited to complete a questionnaire while their form masters evaluated their performance in moral and social education. To keep the questionnaire anonymous to the researchers, students did not need to provide their names. However, on the questionnaire, these students wrote down their class number so that their teachers can provide their evaluation of moral and social education on the front page of the questionnaire.

Measures

Emotional intelligence and its criteria. Similar to the university sample, participants were asked to evaluate their own EI by the 20-items developed in the first step of this study and the two criteria of life satisfaction and powerlessness. Same as the university sample, we took the average of the items under each measure to serve as estimates of the participants' score on the underlying constructs.

Intellectual performance. For their intellectual performance, participants were asked to write down their grades for the Chinese, English, Mathematics, and two best subjects in their Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examination (HKCEE) which is a public examination taken by all secondary students in Hong Kong. These grades were coded as follows: A=5, B=4, C=3, D=2, and E=1. The averages of the five subjects were used as a proxy of the participants' performance in intellectual education.

Moral and social performance. The eight class masters were asked to evaluate their students' performance in moral and social development. We provided the class masters with a written description about moral and social development and asked them to rate their students on a four point scale (4=top 25%; 3=25-50%; 2=50-75%; and 4=bottom 25%). Written description of moral and social development was prepared according to the definitions provided by the Education Commission (1999). In addition to the definitions, some concrete indicators of these performances (e.g., willingness to help their classmates, participating in community service activities, etc.) were also provided so that the class masters could have a better understanding of the definitions. The class masters provided the ratings on the student questionnaire after these questionnaires were completed by the students.

Results

Reliability estimates, descriptive statistics and the correlations among the variables for this sample are shown in Table 2. Similar to the sample of university students, EI of the secondary students is related positively to life satisfaction ($r=.46$, $p<.01$), and negatively to powerlessness ($r=-.37$, $p<.01$). Thus, hypothesis 1 is supported. That is, students' EI is positively related to their life attitudes. As expected, hypothesis 2 is also supported because EI correlates significantly to the attainment of various education goals. The correlation coefficients, however, are not very high. They are .23 ($p<.05$), .21 ($p<.05$), and .16 ($p<.10$), respectively for intellectual, moral and social developments.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics, Reliabilities, and Correlations Among Variables of the Matriculation Sample

	Mean	SD	1 EI	2 LS	3 POW	4 HKCEE	5 MP	
1 Emotional Intelligence (EI)	3.57	.44	(.84)					
2 Life Satisfaction (LS)	4.78	.80	.46**	(.87)				
3 Powerlessness (POW)	4.38	.79	-.37**	-.39**	(.90)			
4 HKCEE	2.80	.36	.23**	.00	-.08	(n.a.)		
5 Moral Performance (MP)	2.60	1.12	.21*	.09	-.07	.19*	(n.a.)	
6 Social Performance (SP)	2.55	1.13	.16+	.18*	-.07	.17*	.31**	

Note: +p<.10; *p<.05; **p<.01; figures in diagonals are coefficient alphas

Discussion

Given the possible importance of EI to students' development, this study attempts to explore empirically the relationships of EI with Hong Kong students' life satisfaction, feeling of powerlessness in life, and performance in moral, social, and intellectual developments. Results obtained from the local 225 six formers provide empirical evidence showing the favorable relationships between EI and senior secondary students' life satisfaction and attitude, and attainment of various education goals. Thus, it appears to be worthwhile for education researchers to further explore the relationships between EI and students' development and effective ways of EI training in Hong Kong.

Before discussing other implications of this study, two limitations of the present study must be noted. First, we employed a self-report measure for EI. Although most of the past studies conducted in Western countries also based on self-report EI measures (Davies et al., 1998), it is very possible that we are capturing a perceived competency rather than an intelligence construct. However, even if we have only demonstrated the relationship between perceived EI competency on students' life attitudes and attainment of educational goals, it is still an important finding for EI training programs. So far as these training programs can improve the

perceived EI competency, they will be useful to affect students' life attitudes and attainment of educational goals. Furthermore, it is reasonable to assume that student's objective EI is an important factor in determining their competency perception. At this exploratory stage, whether we conclude our findings as the effects of EI or perceived competency of EI should not be a major concern. However, future research should develop other measures for Hong Kong students or to investigate the differences between objective EI and perceived competency.

Second, as an exploratory effort, we are interested in the overall effect of EI on Hong Kong students' attitudes towards their lives and attainment of education goals. Our measure appears to be an adequate estimate of participants' overall EI level because the external validity of our measure is cross-validated in two samples. Since we are exploring the relationships between overall EI and other constructs, it is out of the scope of this study to discuss effects of individual EI dimensions. Future research may further examine the relationships between individual EI dimensions and other educational constructs.

Despite the above limitations, there are three additional implications for this study. First, we developed the EI items from university students and applied them to a sample of six formers. On average, these respondents were above average in academic achievement than the overall population of secondary students. It is because only those who perform better in HKCEE can continue their studies as six formers. Future research should explore other ways of measuring EI that may be more suitable for primary and secondary students at other forms, followed by the examination of the effects of EI on their life attitudes and attainment of education goals. Second, as an exploratory effort, this study did not examine the relationship between students' EI and their physical and aesthetic development. Conceptually, EI does not appear to be related to these two forms of educational development directly. Future research may examine whether it is true that these relationships do not exist. If it is true, EI training should not be regarded as panacea in students' development because it is useful for the attainment of some but not all educational goals.

Finally, although we found significant correlations between EI and attainment of the three education goals, the correlation coefficients are not very large. One possible reason for these relatively small coefficients is that we asked the form masters to evaluate the overall performance of their students' moral and social development by single item. The advantage of these measures is that they come from independent source and thus avoid the potential contamination of common method variance. Therefore, it appears that EI is actually related to the attainment of students' moral and social development. For intellectual development, we used students' HKCEE results as a proxy of this variable. This proxy variable is a fair comparison among students because it is comprehensive and consistently applied to all students. However, it may be baised towards the ability of memorization and some examination skills which are not directly related to intellectual development. Thus, future research may develop better and more comprehensive measures of students' attainment of education goals. In fact, as reflected by students' school reports, we are quite frustrated that we could not find comprehensive evaluation by the schools in Hong Kong about their students' performance in various education goals easily with the exception of the intellectual performance. Most schools in Hong Kong emphasize too much on students' academic results and are used to have detailed evaluation of students' performance on various subjects but just a simple grade for "Conduct". The conduct grade of a student is used to reward the overall performance of students in both the moral and social areas. Physical and aesthetic development of a student are regarded as equivalent to the examination grades obtained in the two so-called "cultural" subjects, Physical Education and Art. It is thus suggested that the development of a more comprehensive evaluation scheme for individual education goals will be beneficial not only for researchers but also for improving our education practices in Hong Kong.

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Appendix: The 20 EI Items

1. I always know whether or not I am happy.
2. My friends always understand my emotions better than I understand them myself. (Reverse coded)
3. Sometimes I realize how I feel only after others point out my abnormal behaviors.
4. I always remind myself to calm down if there is an unexpected outcome.
5. I always try to find solutions to my problems instead of avoiding them.
6. My friends treat me as a good listener and observer.
7. Whenever I am given a task, I will try my best to do it well.
8. I always remind myself to be happy and optimistic throughout the day.
9. I usually can tell if a friend is upset or happy.
10. I always know my friends' emotions from their behavior.
11. I have good understanding of others' emotions.
12. I only know my friends' feelings after they tell me. (Reverse coded)
13. I dislike listening to my friends' troubles and problems. (Reverse coded)
14. People won't come to me when they have problems. (Reverse coded)
15. I have a lot of friends.
16. My friends love talking to me.
17. I am able to make my friends feel happy most of the time.
18. I find no difficulties in dealing with different types of people.
19. I am competent in my interaction with others.
20. I do not like dealing with people because they are too complicated. (Reverse coded)

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(Received: 9.7.01, accepted 17.7.01, revised 28.7.01)

Higher Education Pursuit as the Key to Career Advancement - An Exploratory Attitudinal Research Study

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The issue of education determinants for promotion and the measurement of career performance were discussed in various overseas literature. This paper reports on the findings of a research which aims to investigate from the perspectives of OUHK MBA distance learners if seeking higher qualifications is the key factor to career advancement, and if the improvements after education attainment correlate with the perceived employers' requirements for career advancement. Results have shown that the increase of competency level is the main purpose of participating part-time education. In addition, the improvements observed after studies do not necessarily always fulfill the original purposes identified for reasons attending part-time studies. High positive correlation were found on the improvement of human-related factors before and after studies, such as management support, organizational politics and extensive work involvement. In addition, the overall results suggest the possibility that such perceptions, motivations and improvements of education attainment are driven by the model of current personnel selection/screening system which might become a cyclical effect among the personnel selection requirements and employees' driving force to achieve such requirements.

The findings shows that it may not always be appropriate for educational institutions to claim that higher education is the key factor for career advancement as the link is not direct.

進修與升職機會之探討

Spilerman & Lunde 及 Pazy 等西方學者有論及學歷決定升遷及工作表現的文獻。本文乃紀錄調查目較近期於本港所研究，對象是於公開大學工餘修讀同一商管碩士課程之成人學生，從學生角度探討其觀點、經驗及意見。調查顯示能力水平之提升乃其修讀工餘課程之主要目的；而修讀課程後所獲裨益亦未必與原本修讀之理由相符，例如對增加薪酬收入或升遷之預期未必達致。無論如何，調查顯示香港通行之人事招聘及挑選制度，似乎對重視進修學習、動機及提升學歷等方面甚具影響。根據調查，教育機構似不適宜宣傳或強調進修或學歷有助升遷，因為兩者並無必然或直接連繫。

While many researchers in different countries are working on different investigations regarding skills development in Hong Kong, the area of skills development is being aware of and getting more and more popular especially among the population of Hong Kong workforce. Skills development provided from current workforce in Hong Kong exists in various forms, such as night schools, part-time classroom studies, distance learning by local and overseas providers, on-job-training, vocational schools, academic programs, etc. Reasons of why current workforce participating in skills development programs range widely from self-initiated interest, job skill requirements, career change preparation, promotion requirements, the increase of self-competitiveness, to job security protection, etc. Hence, the rapid growth in the popularity of different development programs could possibly be emerged by the increasing demand from employers on job hiring requirements, or the increase of opportunities for employees to self-improve in betting the chance to progress along the career ladder. Or, is the provision of self-development program a fad only which does not relate to any career opportunity or job requirement?

The wide range of choices and availability of part-time

education programs for current workforce might be due to two forces: from the employers and the employees. Previous overseas research have shown that, from employers' point of view, majority believes and accepts that education level is a way to screen a candidate when matching him/her against the job requirements. Measurement of education attainment is also formally or informally set up as some personnel selection system. From the employees' point of view, more education providers would produce more well qualified workforce in market, inducing higher competition. This threat of competition would urge more employees to self-develop themselves regardless their needs, abilities or other circumstances, e.g. family and financial burden, etc.

The research project intends to study, from the individual's perspective, why employees are motivated to learn through part-time education, and to verify if the participation of part-time studies is the belief as a key approach to career advancement. Individuals' improvements of hiring requirements will be measured and matched with the importance of qualities as perceived to be hired for a position. The potential requirements, derived from previous literature, can be classified as fixed and opportunistic factors. Fixed factors comprise of requirements/ qualities related to the past, current and future performance. Past factors, which are historical and cannot be changed, were already considered and absorbed as the requirements and credits in entering the current position. Only current and future factors could be susceptible to improvement through education and be considered as major elements to advance to new position. Opportunistic factors or motivational factors reflect the chances of advancement that one would anticipate to obtain after education attainment and could not be classified as general requirements on career advancement.

Literature Review

How individuals/society sees the HRM issues

By viewing education as a screening device as well as a heavy-weighted object at the human resources personnel selection process, the rest of the population had been reflected as non-conformed findings. Positive and negative opinions were found at different groups of people. A simple positive and negative explanation represents too little and is too shallow to reach a fulfilling analysis as there is no standard path to establish a universal model to answer the issues. This reflects that individuals' or societies' view on the importance of education towards better career opportunities appears variations in the results of different findings. Further analysis have been found on various features of education attainment affecting job promotion.

The positive relationship between education attainment and career advancement had been positioned for two areas. First, level of education is the tool of measurement towards one's credentials or career status. It has been viewed by sociologists that diploma serves primarily as an (imperfect) measure of performance ability rather than as evidence of acquired skills (Arrow, 1973, p.193). "The payoff to education is allocated among the different dimensions of educational achievement; ... consider whether the impact of education differs by rank in an organization." (Spilerman & Lunde, 1991) Secondly, the minimum standards of performance or productivity level becomes a guarantee since education conveys information of such credentials (Spilerman & Lunde, 1991). The minimum standards guarantee coincides with Faia findings that the number of years of schooling captures the full effect of education (Faia, 1981, p.1105). With the 'proof' of performance, a consistent positive relation between commonly used measures of academic achievement and rates of salary increase have been found and suggested that education in fact enhances productive ability (Wise, 1975, p. 363).

However, negative or non-positive relationship with regards to career advancement also exists, with the argument that education is only one of the many factors that often include in the studies on organization career attainment (Hurley, Fagenon-Eland & Sonnenfeld, 1997, P.70). Therefore, the results have been mixed on whether education is helpful to career advancement and suggest that employees should focus less on advancing their education because academically speaking, "what you know" does indeed appear to be less important than "who you know".

Out of the mixed results, Spilerman & Lunde (1991, p. 691) investigated and carried out a study in the features of education attainment to its job promotion opportunities. It was reported that determinants of promotion, which refers to changes of rank within an organization, had been a common

investigations by many researchers (Wise 1975; Spilerman & Lunde , 1991) . Any change of the determinants would reveal how an individual's ultimate occupational achievement is patterned by particular background variables. In Spilerman & Lunde's studies, two issues arise: (1) it is the academic degree most relevant to job performance in a particular grade that will have the greatest impact on advancement prospects from that rank, and (2) credentials would be seen as tapping heterogeneity among workers rather than difference in learned skills.

Therefore, a consideration of four facets of educational achievement: years of schooling, earned degrees, quality of the undergraduate school, and college major. Years of school refers to general education that enhances analytic and communicative skills and increases intellectual flexibility (Kohn 1969, pp 183-188), and the impact of an added year of study depends on current educational attainment and on salary grade where the returns of school at each grade are nonlinear. The earned degrees refers the credentials which is recognized by many researchers. College Quality has been interpreted as an indicator of the richness of the educational experience: used by employer along with credentials to screen new hires where few measures of productivity are available. Weisbrod and Karpoff (1968) and Wales (1973) reported a positive association between college quality and earnings while Wise (1973a; 1973b) stated that college quality is a strong predictor of both salary increase and promotion. In addition, Wise (1973a) reported 3 categories in determinants of salary growth with respect to college major: a) substantial positive impact for a science/engineering major, b) a smaller effect for a liberal arts major, and c) the lowest efficacy for a business major.

From HRD Perspective

As employees of an organization, the staff development strategy becomes the next issue which directly or indirectly affects an employee's career development. From the company's perspective, human resources development strategies relate to the manpower planning of an organization which also implies the opportunities of employees' career advancement. Out of the training and development programmes, the encouragement of self-development becomes more popular to accommodate organization's training flexibility. Individuals from different types of organizations with different backgrounds would also affect its willingness to initiate self-development, and hence the chance to advance in career.

Investment to internal and external training programme

In order to investigate if higher education could facilitate a higher chance of career advancement, the general ways organizations treat the relationship of manpower planning and the priority of apply training and development plan would be studied. Training and development program, which includes both internal and external programmes, is an investment to the companies' human resources, thereby to improve the quality and increase the productivity of the companies. However, research findings had shown that training and development of employees (especially to handle new knowledge and skills) would need long lead time to successfully change for better manpower planning and strategy(Graham and Tuan, 1988, p.21). Therefore, manpower training becomes the second priority after manpower forecast for non-Chinese firms.

However, the way on how different firms in Hong Kong handle the planning of human resources program differs especially between Chinese and non-Chinese firms. In the research findings of Graham and Tuan (1988, p. 26) on the organizations of Hong Kong, on-the-job training, which sees as more effective to employees, was the most commonly used method by both types of firms. Wise (1975, p.361) stated that there is an observed difference in salary by those who received on-the-job training, apart from considering academic training and other personal attributes, and therefore, on-the-job training implies an effective way to raise employees' productivity which is worth a higher paid in return. For the internal training methods, non-Chinese firms show more effort in developing especially their managerial employees while Chinese firms utilize less in-house training and generally neglect internal training. For external training, non-Chinese firms also show an emphasis in developing managerial employees and utilizing external training programme much more than the Chinese firms. Deployment of outside training is especially weak in Chinese manufacturing firms. These findings reflect the differences on the employers' expectation on employees' skills set readiness between Chinese and non-

Chinese firms and the implications in the belief of responsibilities on an employee's development.

With the variations of training emphasis among different types of firms, employees also tend to seek further development which would lead to better opportunities to advance in career. The initiative of self-development, might not be the lack of internal development to employees. There is also no significant relation observed between employees' attitude toward self-development and any of the self-reported training needs (McEnrue, 1989, p.63). Self-development is affected in three main areas. First, younger employees and those with a high level of organizational commitment expressed greater willingness to engage in self-development as a career management strategy than other employees. Secondly, those whose job/career attitude are more committed to the organizations are more willing to attend self-development. This result is consistent with propositions regarding commitment as a predictor of prosocial behavior advanced by Brief and Motowidle (1986) and with Noe's (1986) contention that trainees' motivation to learn is affected by their job/career attitudes. Thirdly, those who observed the salary difference after self-initiative academic training are more willing to develop themselves.

Self-development programme

As part of the HRD strategy, self-development program could help employees to obtain higher qualifications. The profile of employees attending self-development also varies. McEnrue (1989, p.58) stated four variables in predicting willingness to engage in self-development: self-assessed training needs, age, perceived promotion opportunity, and organization commitment. The variable of age, which partially determined the engagement of self-development, affects the career opportunities between the young and older employees. It appears that older employees are less willing to engage in self-development because they have a shorter work horizon to recoup their investment. "Older employees clearly realized smaller return for their efforts. They experience much slower advancement in the organization. ... as though lack of advancement expectations among older employees may affect their willingness to engage in self-development to enhance their skills." (McEnrue, 1989, p.65).

The initiatives to be engaged in self-development is also considered by the sponsorship of such program. Chinese organizations comparatively weak in internal or external training courses. Respondents from Graham and Tuan's (1988, p.25) research suggested alternative method which includes the stress of internal training for all employees. Older employees reported greater skills in coping with job-related stress and are less interested in development as a career management strategy than younger employees (McErue, 1989, p.63). However, there is an increasing number of organizations that offers sponsorship to employees for self-development program in relation to their job aspect.

To investigate the extent to which employees' willingness to engage in self development as a career management strategy, it was expected that individuals who realized they had skill weaknesses would be more willing to engage in self-development activities than those who felt they had all the skills necessary to carry out the responsibilities of more advance positions (McErue, 1989, p.64). It was anticipated that employees would be more motivated to develop themselves for more advanced positions if they themselves perceived a need for training (McErue, 1989, p.59). Employees who identified psychologically with the organization would be more willing to develop their skills than would other employees who expressed less organizational commitment.

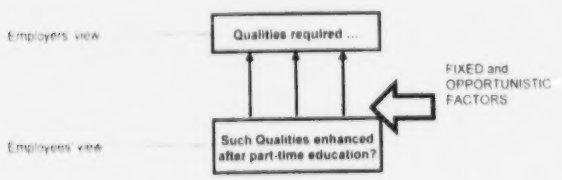
Research Design

From the literature review , it is clear that researchers had investigated and found out from different perspectives of the initiatives, determinants and effects on different factors which lead to career advancement. Based on the factors identified, three areas of research objectives were set up to seek relation between higher education qualifications and career advancement opportunity. The first area is employees' perceptions on what qualities and requirements employers are looking for when selecting candidates for a position, either filled by new hires or through internal promotion. Secondly, the motivational factors of why employees attended part-time education will be investigated and including the factors of career advancement desire. Thirdly, the improvement or impact experienced by respondents on the perceived requirements of promotion and their desire of attaining part-time education.

The factors identified in the previous discussions on career advancement requirements and factors identifying the education motivation could be classified as fixed and opportunistic factors. Fixed factors refers to the possible elements that employers might be looking for and also revealed in the previous literature findings as critical determinants of one's career advancement path. These factors are usually obtained already and cannot be changed shortly at the time of selection process, e.g. education background, competency, popularity at work, etc. Fixed factors are also factors in this research that enhance one to promote, driven by working environment. Opportunistic factors refers to the possible driving forces that employees identified as the initiatives to proceed further on education level. These factors are usually a 'wish list' which is not a natural and 'for sure' result after further education. Opportunistic factors are only factors that yet to become true and motivate one to learn.

As shown in Figure1 below, the research is designed to first identified perceived qualities that employers require during the selection process. Such qualities (i.e. the fixed and opportunistic factors) will then be measured, by participants' own judgement, on the degree of improvement after or during the attainment of part-time education.

Figure 1: The matching between employers' requirement and employees' perception



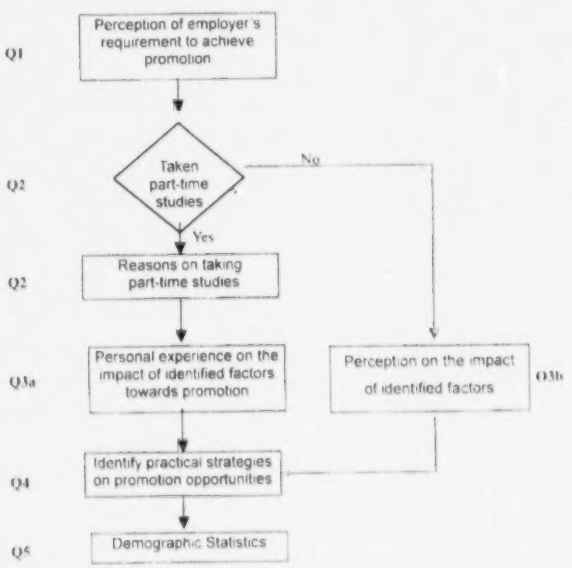
The third area of investigation, as cross checking, is on how attainment of further education has improved on the fixed and opportunistic factors identified as required by employers. Although each respondent would generate a unique set or combination of improvement areas, this part of research reflects where the impression of improvement areas fall. Identification of the major improvement areas against the high priority factors which employers are looking for would imply that higher education brings in better career advancement opportunity.

A research questionnaire was designed according to the three intended objectives of this research. First, to investigate the employees' perceptions on the requirements needed by employers in considering their promotion. Secondly, this research will look into the motivational factors why employees attended part-time education, and thirdly, the impact of such factors affecting promotion after/during attending part-time education.

According to the 3 areas to be investigated, the logical 5 sets of investigation were structured. The questionnaire was basically structured into 5 areas, with the sequential flow that allows respondents smoothly followed the questions step-by-step though. The five areas includes (see Figure 2 for diagrammatic representation):

1. the perceived degree of importance in obtaining the qualities/requirements by employers
2. the individual factors of attaining part-time education in relation to career advancement
3. the degree of improvement of identified qualities after/ during attending the part-time education
4. the strategies for working towards a promotion
5. Respondents' background information

Figure 2 : the logic of questionnaire structure



In short, the set up of questionnaires and selection of research targets were intended to test how individuals think and perceive about the issues on career advancement requirements, motivations to attend part-time studies and the kinds of personal improvements after studies. A total of 225 questionnaires were sent out in February last year to a group of distance learning MBA students who are taking their first course in MBA School of the Open University of Hong Kong. An important reason to select this group is that they have a strong initiatives to take part-time education. Secondly, business administration is an applied subject which concerns more on the practical skills aspects. Attending the part-time studies of this subject implies the need of improve such skill through an academic way. Thirdly, MBA students could better aware of the relationship between elements needed in working life and the supplement of attending part-time studies. Last consideration is that this group of respondents with comparable education and working background provides ready access.

Rsesarch Findings

Questionnaires were distributed at their first day school of the MBA Programme. A total of 135 questionnaires were filled and returned, obtaining the overall response rate of 60%. A summary showing the background of the respondents was shown graphically in the Appendix I

Respondents' perception on employers' hiring requirements

When investigating the individuals' perception on the importance of acquiring the specified qualities or requirements in order to be hired for a position, the top five high scored factors are: years of work experience, competence, performance, types of work experience, career attitudes, and skill development. The respective mean and standard deviation of the requirements are shown in Table 1 (Appendix II). The requirements concern the current state of employees' conditions, including his/her performance, attitude and competence level. Employees also think employers would match candidates' types and length of past experience with the new position. The least concerned factors that employees perceived are: organization politics involvement, college reputation, and image building, as shown in Table 2 (Appendix II).

Respondents' reasons to take part-time education

When asking respondents' reasons to take part-time education (in this case, the distance learning MBA program offered by Open University Hong Kong), the highest priority of reason is for career advancement by increasing competency level. The second and third highest priority are to increase overall competitiveness and for career advancement in return for higher financial reward. The purpose of career change and to ease off peer pressure are the least considered motivational factors to take part-time education (Refer to Table 3 in Appendix II).

The top two motivational factors both relate to the improvement of one's self-development and concern with the competitiveness over others. The listing reflects the perceptions of the importance of own competence to be hired. Taking part-time education would increase one's competency level which is also one of the top considerations to be hired for a position.

Respondents' idea on the improvements during or after the part-time studies

During or after the part-time education, respondents provide their judgement on the improvement of requirements and qualities to be hired for a position. The five most significant improvements (listed in Table 4 in Appendix II) are: competence, increase overall competitiveness, skill development, increase competency level, career attitudes, and adaptability / flexibility. All these improvements are observed as fixed factors that reflect current qualities and opportunistic (motivational) factors of attaining part-time studies. Most of the top improvements relate to the skill and competence level of respondents.

The lowest three improvements (listed in Table 5 in Appendix II) were shown to be: higher financial reward, ease off peer pressure, and companies work with in the past. It is obvious the past fixed factors that companies work with in the past could not be changed through part-time education, hence rank lowest. However, one of the high ranking motivation factors, higher financial reward, seeks very small improvement after part-time education.

Respondents' belief in education as the key factor for promotion

The respondents were first asked if they had received any promotion during or after the part-time studies. Out of those who respond to this questions, 82 (73%) respondents revealed that no promotion received and 31 (27%) respondents had received promotion. The next question was asked to particular those who had received promotion that if they think the part-time education qualification is the key factor that leads to this career advancement. With 44 responded answers, 23 (52%) respondents answered yes and 21 (48%) respondents answered no (Table 6 in Appendix II). Therefore, only 23 out of 135 respondents (17%) could firmly state that the part-time education they were taking was the key factor to their recent promotion.

Respondents' attitude towards the strategies applying for a promotion

When ask about the respondents priority of strategies that will use to work for a promotion, Greenhaus (1987) were used to compare the practical strategies priority versus their perception on employees' requirements and self-motivation factors. The list of priority (calculated on inverse scoring mean) towards the seven broad strategies are as follows:

1 Make sure that you are competent in current job (Mean = 4.87, SD = 2.7)
2) Try to extend your work involvement to a wider scope (Mean = 4.69, SD = 2.3)
3) Develop more/further skills through education (Mean = 4.63, SD = 2.45)
4) Proactively search and develop opportunity of advancement (Mean = 3.32, SD = 2.55)
5) Intentionally build up an image of your own at your work environment (Mean = 2.89, SD = 2.49)
6) Aware and involve in organization politics that could best position yourself (Mean = 2.23, SD = 2.42)
7 Work with a mentor (a senior employee) closely and develop the relationship with him/her (Mean = 2.11, SD = 2.29)

The strategy on skill development was listed the third. The strategy most commonly used is to make sure that one is competent in current job. Competency level was consistently being emphasized throughout the findings of different categories.

Discussion

As discussed above, the hypothesis was that the current and future factors would place major effects as the key to career advancement. Past factors, which are historical and cannot be changed, were already considered and absorbed as the requirements and credits in entering the current position. Only current and future factors could be made improved through education and be considered as major elements to advance to new position. Opportunistic factors would be based on individuals' motivation and its effect could not be generalized in cases of general requirements on career advancement.

Seeking higher qualifications was proved not equivalent to the key to career advancement. Education only provides an enhancement of some current and future situations that would help employees to obtain higher values during the selection process. Also, the increase of competency, which is the most direct and instant effect after part-time studies, is also a key element perceived by individuals as the requirements to be hired. Therefore, education attainment that could indirectly enhance the criteria that current personnel selection system is looking for and is not the direct key to career advancement.

Another finding is that to determine the key to career advancement, the understanding on the concept of current personnel selection system is crucial, and it is important to relate individuals' skills development. The Personnel Selection concept would possibly affect the perception of how Hong Kong people view the essential requirements of promotion as well as the skill development plan from individuals or companies. It has been observed that the formation of personnel selection system directly affects the perception of how employees in Hong Kong view the general selection requirements. When certain selection system is formed and implemented, employees will take the defined selection criteria into consideration and try to customize own profile to be as close as the general requirements. Public would gradually adopt and accept some general rules which are commonly used among HR practitioners in certain

industries or regions/countries and mould themselves to provide only what employers want in order to get hired or promoted. Selection system will be adjusted when the company or economy changes to a different situation and employees will follow the adjustment and gradually adapt to the new general rules of the system. Personnel selection system could be influenced by culture, government policies, economy state, etc.

This project intends to look at, from the individual's perspective, why employees are motivated to learn through part-time education, and, in particular, to verify if the participation of part-time studies is their belief as a key approach to advance in their career. Individuals' improvements of hiring requirements will be measured and matched with the importance of such qualities as perceived to be hired for a position. The potential requirements, derived from previous literature, can be classified as fixed and opportunistic factors. Fixed factors comprise of requirements/ qualities related to the past, current and future performance. Opportunistic factors or motivational factors reflect the chances that one would anticipate to catch after education attainment.

Employees' Background

The background of the respondents of this research, which was the part-time MBA students of the Open University Hong Kong, suggested a few assumptions on their career state for the research. Most of the respondents are in their mid career and shown to be more mature employees and students. The average age is just above 30 years old and therefore they are classified to be at their stabilization stage (Noe, Noe & Bachhuber, 1990, p.342). Person at the stabilization stage implies a higher level of career identity, insight and resilience than people below 30 and above 46 of age. These individuals are actively involved in developing career goals, assessing new employment opportunities, and striving to attain additional responsibility and authority in work assignments. This group is also neither too young or too old. Older employees reported greater skill in coping with job-related stress but less opportunity for advancement in the future. They were also less interested in pursuing self-development as a career management strategy than younger employees as they are less committed to the organization (McEnrue, 1989, p. 63).

Perception on how selection system affects the motivations on education attainment and employees' adjustment to adapt the system

As the perception of the criteria employers are looking for, in order to be hired, the findings also reflect similarities on the reasons why respondents participating part-time education. These similarities suggest motivational factors could be affected by how individuals perceived on the real life situation and the screening system in practice. Without the need to consider the original philosophy of each screening system which is not identical to each other, individuals tend to adjust their own values with the objective to reach the intended target. With a heavy weight on the competence-related criteria being connected to employers' requirements, it was found to be coherent with the respondents' motivation.

The top two reasons on why respondents attending part-time education are because of the want to increase competency level in order to advance in their career and to increase overall competitiveness. The two factors may include job-related and general skills level. Relevant part-time education to be taken for career advancement along the planned path. Overall competitiveness relates to general skills, qualification, exposure at higher level of education, etc. which would by impression or practically improve one's general knowledge and ability. Another high priority is to improve the financial reward through career advancement. The social values of Hong Kong people obtain a belief that Hong Kong is a land that full of opportunities. People in Hong Kong accepts that monetary rewards is based on one's own contribution, and people are willing to work for the developmental opportunities (Lau & Kuan, 1988, p.64). As far as the employers' requirements are satisfied, employees are believed on a high chance in climbing up the career ladder.

Interest in further study and career advancement for higher occupation prestige are the medium priority. People in Hong Kong although are well-known as hard and efficient workers. Study part-time seems to be driven by more practical matters, such as financial rewards or ways to satisfy financial rewards, rather than to learn for interests as part-time leisure. Occupation prestige is another factor that seems not to apply for Hong Kong people. Faia's finding reflects that the impact of college schooling on occupational prestige is substantially larger than that of primary/secondary schooling, and an added

year college affects larger on the occupation prestige (Faia, 1981, p.1105). In contrast, the motivation of respondents in attending part-time studies seems not to be on this focus.

Employees' strategies when working for a promotion

Not only the motivation factors, but also the preference of practical strategies would coincide with the top requirements of the perceived personnel screening/selection system. Out of the seven strategies addressed in the questionnaires, all the competence-related factors are listed as the top strategic priorities of the respondents when working for a promotion. These include making sure that one is competent at the current job, and then development more skills through education to enhance own value to the company. In addition, with a certain level of competency, try to extend the work involvement to a wider scope is also a strategy employees would apply in order to promote. Strategies related to company politics and situations were less considered. As indicated in the respondents' perception section, strategies such as organization politics involvement, image building, development of mentor relationship and career opportunity development are believed to be at low priorities when considering selection requirements.

Employees' improvement on criteria based on the perceived selection system during or after part-time study

Findings show that the motivation of self-study and practical strategies chosen for promotion development were prioritized as a result of the adjustment to the perceived requirements by employers in order to advance, i.e. the perceived personnel selection/screening system. Improvements made or impacts after self-development program on these criteria was investigated and results suggest a partial conformance to the perceived personnel selection system. In other words, not all the improvements after studies coincide with the criteria highly required as well as the top motivation factors and promotion strategies.

The impact on higher skill development awareness, improvement on competency level, increase overall competitiveness and hence better career attitudes were generally observed as the top improvement after or during the participation of part-time education. This suggests that part-time education does not only improve particular skills learned for different job nature, but also produce an impact on improvement general competence and overall competitiveness including career satisfaction and involvement. The personal characteristics of adaptability or flexibility, which refers to the capacity to acquire new skills and knowledge in the face of changing career demands (Asya Pazy, 1988, p.314), was also reported at a high improvement level. Education provides a general "signal" of one's credentials at work such as increase in productivity and effectiveness.

However, areas of high improvements after studies does not always mean the top motivation factors, the promotion strategies and the perception of employers' requirements. One of the top motivation factors of self-development, the increase of financial reward through career advancement, was rated one of the least improvements after studies. This reflects that after attending studies, immediate promotion did not happen to increase the financial reward. A popular promotion strategy in extending work involvement was placed as a medium rate of improvement after studies. Education does not directly mean the ability to involvement more job responsibilities in the practical situation. Among the top perceived criteria, past factors which were not able to change this historical background are placed at lower priority.

With the similarities and difference between the improvement and perceived selection criteria, the results suggested that education attainment shows some immediate improvement on the current and motivational factors which were perceived as crucial factors. For the crucial factors that relates to employees' past history, improvement cannot be made immediately as it concerns with the historical data and impression of employees by employers.

Employees' belief in education as the key factors for promotion

Regardless the respondents' view on the Personnel Selection/Screening System, the survey had asked about the belief of education attainment as key factor. Respondents who received promotion during or after part-time education were asked if they believed that education is the key that

brought them to an advancement. The reflection of 52% of respondents showing positive answers firmly could be due to two factors. First, during their career path, employees believed that some of the competency areas that they gained from the part-time education had in fact assisted them to have outstanding performance. Secondly, the internal career planning for individual employees or the human resources management system had embedded some form of credits (for example salary or grading increase) to employees through successful attainment of education programme. Therefore, the interpretation of education as a key of promotion could be seen in two ways: a direct way that was stated in the human resources structures and policies, and an indirect way that requires the qualifications and competence of relevant skills in order to be promoted.

Conclusion

To conclude, seeking higher qualification is not a direct key to career advancement. It is the competency level and the level of competitiveness that are the perceived major requirements to get hired for a position. The result of higher qualifications had made individuals feel or actually find out that their competence and competitiveness has been improved, and therefore, obtain a better chance to be selected for higher position.

The result of investigation also shows that the motivation to attain studies, practical strategies of promotion and improvements after education are all linked to the perception of personnel selection/screening system as a cyclic effect. The form of the selection system, which suggests the requirements to be advanced, becomes a guideline for employees to work towards the fulfillment of such system, in this case, improve competency level through education. Subsequently, motivational factors and strategies for promotion are all initiated by attending part-time studies to achieve required competency level. This implication of attaining further education coincides with findings from Arrow (1972, p.194) and Spilerman & Lunde (1991, p.699) which regards education credential is an important signal to employers about the competence of a job applicant. Co-workers of all levels, since being governed under the same selection system, also respect and give credit to individuals that had such educational achievement.

The responding group of this research may be representative and generalized as senior supervisory and management level of individuals who are at their mid-career stabilization stage in Hong Kong. Other than competence level and increase of competitiveness, the improvement of the past, current and future factor groups also directly or indirectly help this group to work towards their career path. In general, factors that happened in the past could not help much in becoming the requirements of career advancement. Current performance issue and anticipation of future performance issues were well aware by the respondents as more critical and advantageous factors when being selected for a position. In fact, after a candidate gets in the next position, some of the current factors will become historical, e.g. types of major, years of education and work experience. This could be observed that upgrading current factors means strengthening past records in the future career path. Employees' historical reference will be much more beneficial to their career directions. Future factors which are affected by mostly human perceptional factors have shown positive improvements after studies.

Motivational factors can be explained in two folds. The increase of competitiveness and competency level are obvious initiatives. Unlike the research from the West, Chinese in Hong Kong believe opportunities to obtain their wealth by individual means (i.e. by their own ability and work hard) and to improve his social and economic status (Law & Kuan, 1988, p.64). Seeking for higher financial reward as another motivation of education attainment could be explained in two ways. First, the way to satisfy the desire of higher financial reward is to get promotion and subsequently a salary increase. Secondly, after promotion, financial reward will automatically come with a senior position after promotion.

An extension of the investigation will be worthwhile in two aspects. A deeper level on each aspect and the relationship among the factors would suggest linkage of individual perception to the selection criteria of personnel system, and further on how cultural issues affect such system. Another aspect would be the investigation from the employers' view and perceptions of the factors in this research. A comparison could be conducted from two perspectives and hence affects the end result of criteria to be considered in a selection system.

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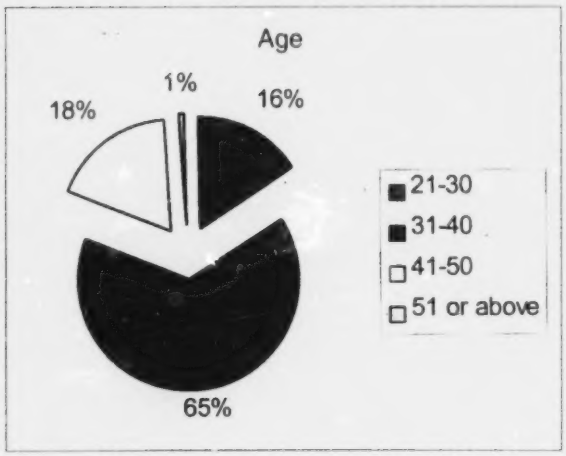
Appendix II-Respondents Summary Data

Age Distribution



Distribution of Education Level

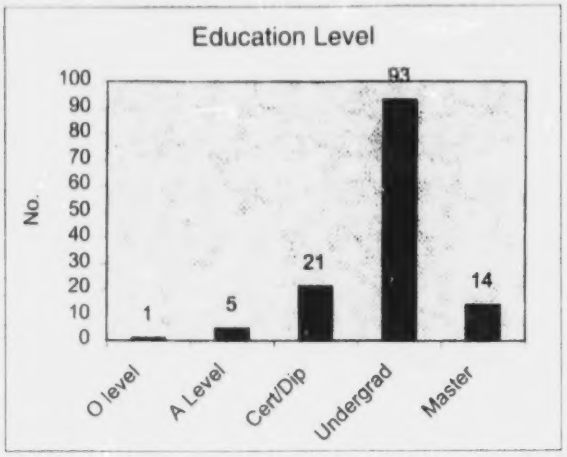


Figure: Marital Status Classification

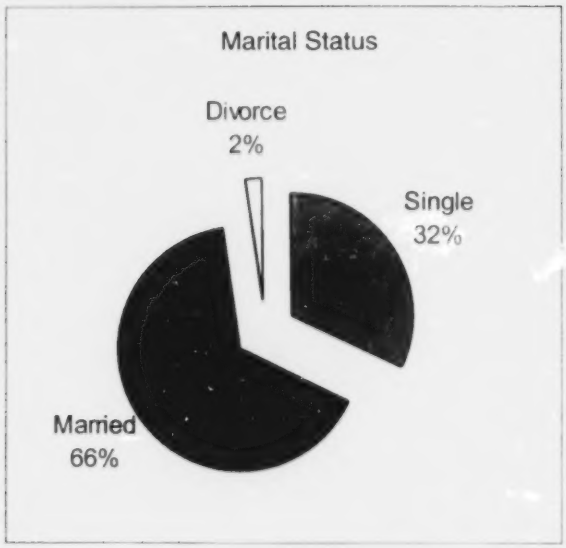
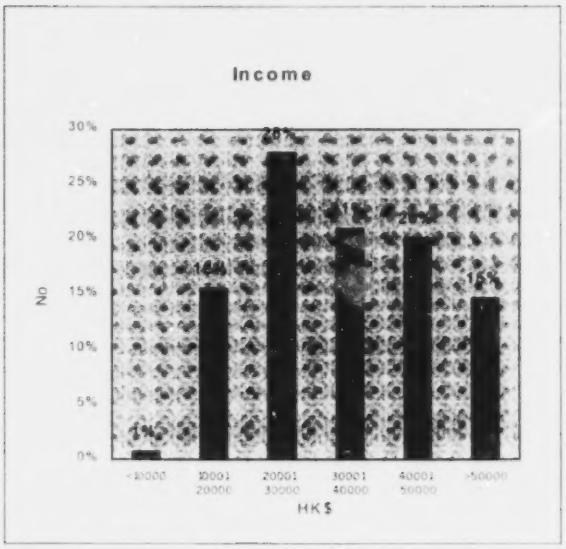


Figure: Income Distribution



Appendix I-Respondents Summary Data

Table 1: Perception on employers' top hiring requirements

	Mean	SD
Years of work experience	4.06	1.06
Competence	4.06	0.88
Performance	4.02	0.91
Types of work experience	3.86	1.02
Career attitudes	3.72	0.96
Skill development	3.72	0.92

Table 2: Perception on employers' lowest hiring requirements

	Mean	SD
Organization politics involvement	2.98	1.21
college reputation	3.01	1.17
Image Building	3.15	1.24

Table 3: Reasons to take part-time education

	Mean	SD
Increasing competency level	4.99	2.81
Increase overall competitiveness	3.98	3.02
Financial Reward	2.79	3.01
Interest in further study	2.67	2.88
Higher occupation prestige	2.46	2.95
Career change	1.55	2.49
Ease off peer pressure	0.8	1.69

Table 4: Best improvements observed during/after education

	Mean	SD
Competence	3.75	0.88
Increase overall competitiveness	3.68	0.93
Skill development	3.63	0.9
Increase competency level	3.63	0.87
Career attitudes	3.55	1.08
Adaptability/flexibility	3.55	0.97

Table 5: Least improvement observed during/after education

	Mean	SD
Higher financial reward	2.55	1.32
Ease off peer pressure	2.54	0.54
Companies work with in the past	2.27	1.49

Table 6: Respondents' belief in education as the key factor for promotion

	no answer	not a key factor	key factor	N/A	Total
no answer	1	0	0	0	1
no promotion received	68	10	4	0	82
promotion received	1	13	17	0	31
N/A	1	0	0	20	21
Total	71	23	21	20	135

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(Received 7.5.01, accepted 1.8.01, revised 28.9.01)

資訊科技教育所面對的問題：香港三所中學的個案研究

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本文描述香港政府在中學推行資訊科技教育的政策，並以三間中學作為實例，以探討政策與中學生在實際使用資訊科技模式的差距。本文並探討由以課本為根據、以教師為中心的教學模式，轉向較為互動和以學生為中心的「範式轉向」所產生的問題。

The Issues Encountered in Information Technology Education: A Case Study of Three Secondary Schools in Hong Kong

This paper describes the information technology strategy in secondary school of the Hong Kong Government, and makes use of three secondary schools as examples to compare the differences between governmental strategy and the actual pattern in information technology as used by students. The issues arising from the paradigm shift due to a largely textbook-based teacher-centred approach to a more interactive and learner-centred approach is discussed.

引言

資訊科技發展的速度一日千里，它使我們的起居生活、溝通方式及學習模式等等也起了根本的改變。我們在從前很難想像電腦及互聯網有今天的發展。現時，我們可以足不出戶而知天下事，及流動電話的普及情況已幾乎人手一部。資訊科技的發展，標緻著一些以前屬不可能或難於實現的事情在今天成為可能。它大大打破了時間及空間對人的限制，亦使知識傳授的速度大大加快。它使學生能夠學習得更快及學習得更好。今日的資訊科技，實際已經改變了一般的學習環境及學習法方法。在以前，我們若要搜集資料一般需要在圖書館的目錄架上尋找然後再按編碼在書架中找尋。但現在我們可以足不出戶，面對著家中的個人電腦，透過互聯網來尋找、資料的處理、儲存、傳送也來得快而準，且可按個別人士的需要而運作。現時的學習模式亦鼓勵互動，不單是鼓勵學生與教師的互動，學生更可以與學校以外甚或國家以外的專家互動。學習的方法亦因資訊科技的發展而起了根本的改變。課堂上一位老師對眾多學生的單線教學模式，已可以發展成為雙向的學習模式。學生可以不再依賴指定的課本作為資料的唯一或主要來源，他們可以按自己實際的需要，透過互聯網的幫助而找到更詳盡的資料。以前，在某些課程裡應教授什麼內容得依賴課本及老師的教導為根據。但現在，只要透過互聯網打入相關網址，打下欲尋找的資料名稱，然後一按電腦的按扭，資料便源源不絕地即時送上。即使是一些政府的重要文件、政府官員的重要講話及一些重要資料的詳情，現時普通市民亦很容易在互聯網上找到及下載。資料的提取及貯存對普通人來說已不再是一個問題。

資訊科技的特點，正大大改變了知識的分配情況及影響著學生如何學習。學生現在於學習上可擔當自我導向的角色，他們可以按個別的時間、地點及要求那一類知識而作出剪裁，知識的傳授因而可以變為專為某一類人的需要而設。這種改變，正挑戰著傳統的學習模式，及大大加快課堂以外的教育普及。教師在整個教與學的過程中擔當的角色亦因為此等變化而受到衝擊。資訊科技革新，使時間與地域的限制縮小，這有利於發展遙距教育，它間接為邊遠或人口分散的地方的教育帶來契機，亦使不能定時來到課堂學習的人士提供進修的機會，這亦促進了持續進修教育的發展，特別為在正規教育中失意的人士提供第二次學習的機會，亦為有興趣鑽

研某專門學問的人士提供條件。

一般社會人士，實際已意識到資訊科技的大潮流不能抗拒，他們實已接受了應在現今的教育制度裡強化資訊科技教育的需要。香港在這方面亦沒有例外，行政長官董建華先生在其首份《施政報告》中表明，香港必須在「資訊科技新紀元著著領先」，他提出需要四項主要因素配合，才可實現此理想。其中重要的一步是讓我們懂得靈活應用資訊科技，並應用資訊科技來提高教與學的成效，使學生掌握必需的資訊科技知識及應用技巧，培養正確的態度，以迎接資訊年代的挑戰。教育統籌局於一九九八年十一月發表了一份名為《與時並進善用資訊科技學習五年策略》的文件，詳細闡述了香港政府的立場及政策。在此策略文件內，清楚寫明了政府的理想。他們認為：「我們須協助學生了解資訊科技對社會和日常生活的廣泛影響，培養更高層次的思維技巧，掌握處理資訊(尋找、評估、組織和表達)的全盤方法，並養成終生學習的習慣，使學生能夠在瞬息万變的世界中仍能佔盡優勢。為此，學校教育有需要來一次"範式轉向"---由一種主要以課本為根據、以教師為中心的教學模式，轉向較為互動和以學生為中心的模式，以配合新年代的需要。」(註一)。

本文首先透過政府的有關文件，以了解香港政府在中學推廣資訊科技教育的措施及其目的，再進而分析先前筆者透過問卷調查的資料，以檢視香港中學生在資訊科技應用上的實際情況是否與政府推行此等措施的期望相同，並探討"範式轉向"所產生的問題。

香港政府在中學推廣資訊科技教育的措施

行政長官董建華先生期望香港在資訊科技新紀元著著領先，因而在中小學推廣資訊科技教育，期望透過教育可以使學生熟習資訊科技，因而與其他國家競爭時能著著領先。早在特區政府成立前的一九九七年初，當時的港英政府已朝資訊科技教育進發。當時公佈的措施，是把所有中學聯接上互聯網，並免費提供互聯網帳戶。香港特區政府在一九九七年七月一日成立後，行政長官在其九七年的《施政報告》中亦公佈，會為每所中學平均設有82台電腦，提供超過三萬個名額訓練教師應用資訊科技，並在十所中學推行資訊科技先導計劃，以摸索在教與學方面應用資訊科技的最理想模式，並成立一所資訊科技教育資源中心，協助購置和研製教學軟件。

在一九九八至一九九九學年起，視乎學校的大小，政府把每年經常津貼增至每校69,000元或76,000元，供學校購買消耗品和教學軟件，以及繳付其他例如互聯網用戶的費用。在大約一百所中學設立多媒體學習中心，以推動在各學科中更廣泛地應用資訊科技。為推行中、小學的資訊教育，政府須增撥合共約25.8億元的非經常費用。此外，每年須增撥2.33億元的經常費用。

行政長官在一九九八年的《施政報告》中，再提出一些額外的措施，這包括再提供三萬五仟個名額和訓練教師應用資訊科技。此外，由一九九九至二〇〇〇學年開始，為最多120所學校各提供一名資訊科技統籌員，以及由二〇〇〇至二〇〇一學年開始，最多為250所學校各提供一名資訊科技統籌員。另外以合約的方式，為所有學校提供技術支援。亦會發放津貼，讓學校在正常開放時間以外，開放電腦室及資訊科技設備供學生使用。為上述各項措施，政府要再增撥3.34億元的非經常費用。此外，每年須增撥2.945億元的經常費用。

政府以上的種種措施，已使香港的中學生在學校已有充份接觸電腦的機會。學生透過互聯網、多媒體的使用及以電腦處理一般的文書工作，他們應該對資訊科技不再感到陌生。政府承擔了切實推動資訊科技教育的責任。現時，一般中學生在電腦的使用上已不感陌生，學校在利用電腦及其他資訊科技在教與學上亦漸見普遍。不過，在這支援下，是否意味著學生就是朝著政府所期望的方向進發正是本文想探訪的。為此本文作者在二〇〇〇至二〇〇一年下學期結束前，以目標抽樣的方式選取了香港三所中學的中四班全級的學生進行問卷調查。該三所中學在學生的學業水平上分別屬三個不同程度的學校，它們學生的成績與香港一般中學的情況近似。雖然對三所中學調查所得的結果不可以推論到香港中學的整體情況，但其情況如何對了解香港的中學仍有參考的價值。回收到的有效問卷為487份。我們選取中四班的原因是他們因學習上的需要普遍較低年班同學多需要應用電腦，所以找他們作答問卷較為恰當。

研究結果

在本研究中，填答問卷的487位中四的同學的背景資料如下：

背景資料

在性別方面，以女同學略多於男同學，分別為56.7%及43.3%，詳情見表一。

表一：性別分佈

性別	人數	(百分比)
男性	211	(43.3)
女性	276	(56.7)
合計	487	(100.0)

在修讀學科的分別上，以讀文科的略多於理科，分別為55.4%及44.6%。詳情見表二。

表二、學生所修讀學科的分佈

修讀學科	人數	(百分比)
文科	270	(55.4)
理科	217	(44.6)
合計	487	(100.0)

家中擁有電腦設備及使用的情況

被訪的學生在家是否擁有一些電腦設備，在某個程度上可以反映他們使用資訊科技的能力及傾向性。若在家沒有此等設備，當他們需要使用時便得倚賴學校或公共地方提供。在家中有沒有電腦設備上，被訪者的情況如表三所示。

表三、被訪學生在家中擁有及使用電腦設施的情況

家中擁有電腦設施	有（百分比）	沒有（百分比）	合計（百分比）
擁有電腦	406(83.4)	81(16.6)	487(100.0)
寬頻上網	192(39.4)	295(60.6)	487(100.0)
自己錄製CD-Rom	88(18.1)	399(81.9)	487(100.0)
使用電腦掃描器	184(37.8)	303(62.2)	487(100.0)
擁有自己的電郵地址	315(64.7)	172(35.3)	487(100.0)
擁有自己的網頁	76(15.6)	411(84.4)	487(100.0)
擁有自己的ICQ戶口	310(63.7)	177(36.3)	487(100.0)

在家中擁有電腦的比例多達83.4%，實有利於學生學習資訊科技。而寬頻上網是快速連接互聯網的有效工具，特別是多媒體資料的傳送或下載方面它較普通以電話線來傳送有效得多。現時有39.4%的被訪者家中裝有寬頻，雖然不及在家中擁有電腦般普遍，但比例上已不算少故此情況是樂觀的。在使用電腦掃描器上，這是另一種資訊科技的產品，特別是把電腦以外取得的圖片及文字下載，以達多媒體使用的目的時具有作用。被訪者當中亦有37.8%有使用掃描器，情況與寬頻上網相近，亦屬樂觀的現象。在自己錄制CD-Rom上，因涉及要在電腦上裝有配件，以及懂得相關的技術，在香港現今的情況下，一般人使用的情況未達致如以錄影帶錄影般普遍，故在現今個案中只得18.1%有使用是可以理解的。

除了是一些硬件的設備外，個人因應其需要而有沒有設立電郵戶口、ICQ戶口及自己的網頁，從中亦可以看出他們在資訊科技上實際的行為。擁有自己的電郵戶口與自己的ICQ戶口的百分比相近，分別為64.7%及63.7%，在比例上顯示他們當中也非常接受此等戶口。而要花一些心思、時間及技術才可以實現的是擁有自己的網頁，其普遍程度遠遠不及電郵或ICQ戶口，只得15.6%。但已有15.6%被訪者有此行動，對培養他們使之能善用資訊科技是更有希望的。若他們在此方面獲得成就，其信心會加強。當熟習技術，直接或間接又可刺激其在此方面再進一步發展，亦可刺激其他同學亦朝此方面進發，情況仍然是正面的。

若在家中無電腦，在需要使用時便得依賴學校或在公共地方使用。在學校內使用電腦的情況詳情見於表四。

表四、在學校內使用電腦的情況

在校內使用電腦	人數	（百分比）
可隨時使用	110	(24.2)
輪候不太久便可用	168	(37.0)
很難輪到使用	176	(38.8)
合計	454	(100.0)

＊有33個沒有填答此項。

有38.8%的被訪者說很難輪到使用電腦正是我們所關心的，若他們因此而在家置有電腦則問題不大，否則便會阻礙他們在資訊科技上學習。

基於測試設定「家中有沒有電腦，與在學校使用電腦的難易程度是有關係」的命題不能成立。換句話說，即使在家中有沒有電腦，與在學校使用電腦的難易程度也沒有關係，而當中家中無電腦者，有42.9%說很難輪候到使用，而家中有電腦者，亦有38.0%說很難輪候到使用。詳情見表五。

表五、家中有沒有電腦與在學校使用電腦的難易程度

	在學校使用電腦的難易程度			合計
家中有否電腦	足夠電腦使用	輪候不久	很難輪到	
	N(%)	N(%)	N(%)	N(%)
家中無電腦	16(22.9%)	24(34.3)	30(42.9)	70(100.0)
家中有電腦	94(24.5)	144(37.5)	146(38.0)	384(100.0)

P=0.746

在公共地方使用電腦時，說很難輪到使用的情況較在學校裡嚴重，達54.4%。詳情見表六。

表六、在公共地方使用電腦的情況

在公共地方使用電腦	人數	（百分比）
可隨時使用	45	(9.9)
輪候不太久便可用	162	(35.7)
很難輪到使用	247	(54.4)
合計	454	(100.0)

*有33個沒有填答此項。

同樣在測試設定「家中有沒有電腦，與在公共地方使用電腦的難易程度是有關係的」，此命題亦不能成立。換言之，即使在家中有沒有電腦，與在公共地方使用電腦的難易程度也沒有關係。而當中，家中有沒有電腦者，分別有54.6%及53.5%說很難輪到使用。詳情見表七。我們所應關注的，是家中沒有電腦者，在學校及在公共地方使用電腦也覺困難。他們的情況應受到關注，否則因家中有無電腦，而出現學習資訊科技上的差異。

表七、家中有沒有電腦與在公共地方使用電腦的難易程度

	在公共地方使用電腦的難易程度			合計
家中有否電腦	足夠電腦使用	輪候不久	很難輪到	
	N(%)	N(%)	N(%)	N(%)
家中無電腦	4(5.6%)	29(40.8)	38(53.5)	71(100.0)
家中有電腦	41(10.7)	133(34.7)	209(54.6)	383(100.0)

P=0.334

使用電腦的頻率

在使用電腦的頻率上，每天也使用(39.3%)或每週也使用(35.3%)的佔最多，可見他們也需常常使用電腦。詳情見表八所示。

表八、使用電腦的頻率

使用電腦的頻率	人數	（百分比）
每天也使用	190	(39.3)
每週也使用	171	(35.3)
每月也使用	54	(11.2)
甚少使用	62	(12.8)
從不使用	7	(1.5)
合計	484	(100.0)

*有3位沒有填答

使用電腦作何種用途

在使用電腦作何種用途上，被訪者的主要用途為娛樂(42.1%)，次要用途為下載歌曲(26.9%)，第三種主要用途亦為下載歌曲(29.0%)，詳情見下表九所示。

表九、使用電腦作何種用途

用途	主要用途	次要用途	第三用途
	人數（百分比）	人數（百分比）	人數（百分比）
打字	39(8.4)	42(10.2)	50(16.1)
互聯網找功課資料	37(7.9)	39(9.4)	27(8.7)
娛樂	197(42.1)	86(20.8)	52(16.8)
電子郵件	23(4.9)	43(10.4)	47(15.2)
使用ICQ	134(28.7)	92(22.3)	44(14.2)
下載歌曲	37(7.9)	111(26.9)	90(29.0)
合計	467*(100.0)	413**(100.0)	310***(100.0)

*有20人無答或不適用

**有74人無答或不適用

***有177人無答或不適用

操作電腦的熟習程度

對於操作電腦用作不同事情的熟習程度方面，以對ICQ的使用非常熟習的居多，佔36.9%，而對以電腦上互聯網，非常熟習的只佔21.8%，非常熟習以電腦打字的則只佔10.3%。詳情見表十。

表十、操作電腦的熟習程度

	非常不熟習	不太懂	也懂	非常熟習	合計
	人數（百分比）	人數（百分比）	人數（百分比）	人數（百分比）	人數（百分比）
打字	52(10.7)	109(22.3)	268(56.4)	49(10.3)	478(100.0)
以互聯網找資料	30(6.3)	55(11.6)	287(60.3)	104(21.8)	476(100.0)
運用電郵聯絡	54(11.3)	96(20.2)	213(44.7)	113(23.7)	476(100.0)
運用ICQ聯絡	54(11.4)	63(13.3)	181(38.3)	174(36.9)	472(100.0)

遇電腦問題時找誰協助

當被訪者遇到電腦問題時，他們以找朋友協助的佔最多(48.1%)，其次是找同學(28.2%)及找家人(15.0%)，而找老師協助的只佔極少(4.2%)。其實找尋教授電腦知識的老師去解決電腦上的問題才最正確，但學生卻不利用老師的專業知識來解決問題實屬浪費人力資源，如何能改變此現象值得深究。

電腦訊息來自何處

對於電腦訊息來自何處方面，主要來源為朋友或同學(45.4%)，其次是來自報紙雜誌(36.1%)，第三來源亦為報紙雜誌(26.9%)。來自老師或家人所佔的比例極小，可見學生們並無倚賴提供知識的老師，及沒有依賴提供身教、經濟支持及意識灌輸的家人的協助。詳情見表十一。

表十一、電腦訊息來自何處

電腦訊息來源	主要來源 人數（百分比）	次要來源 人數（百分比）	第三來源 人數（百分比）
互聯網	127(27.0)	85(22.4)	49(19.4)
報紙雜誌	68(14.4)	137(36.1)	68(26.9)
電腦商場	18(3.8)	37(9.7)	53(20.9)
朋友／同學	214(45.4)	67(17.6)	52(20.6)
老師	14(3.0)	34(8.9)	13(5.1)
家人	22(4.7)	20(5.3)	18(7.1)
其他	8(1.7)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)
合計	471(100.0)	380(100.0)	253(100.0)

家人對被訪者使用電腦的支援

對於被訪者使用電腦，上表十一已顯示家人並非學生獲取電腦資訊的來源，但是是否因家人在態度上或行為上沒有支援他們所致？家人在態度上有鼓勵的佔53.2%，在經濟上有支持佔66.0%，但在知識上技援則只有30.6%有協助，這反映家人廣泛缺乏電腦知識，因而在知識上難以作出支援。詳情見表十二。

表十二、家人對被訪者使用電腦的支援

	有 人數（百分比）	沒有 人數（百分比）	合計 人數（百分比）
鼓勵	254(53.2)	223(46.8)	477(100.0)
經濟上支持	315(66.0)	162(34.0)	477(100.0)
知識上支持	146(30.6)	331(69.4)	477(100.0)

學校在教與學上使用與電腦有關事情的情況

除了家庭外，學校在教與學上如何使用電腦，亦直接或間接影響到該學生對資訊科技教育的接受程度。學校在使用power-point在教學上，則有43.3%被訪同學說校方間中使用，而答經常使用的則佔15.9%。在使用互聯網上的資料方面，間中使用的佔40.6%，經常使用的佔15.5%。在此兩方面上的情況是樂觀的。反觀老師與學生以電郵的溝通上，間中使用的只得16.4%，而經常使用更跌至5.5%，可見老師與學生之間仍未習慣以此形式溝通。此方面值得進一步加強。至於學校有否CD-Rom供學生使用方面，有29.5%說間中使用，而說經常使用的只有9.6%，這方面亦應加以推廣。詳情見表十三。

表十三、學校在教與學上使用與電腦有關事情的情況

	經常 人數 （百分比）	間中 人數 （百分比）	甚少 人數 （百分比）	絕無 人數 （百分比）	合計 人數 （百分比）
使用power-point教學	75(15.9)	204(43.3)	120(25.5)	72(15.3)	471(100.0)
使用互聯網上的資料	73(15.5)	191(40.6)	156(33.2)	50(10.6)	470(100.0)
老師與學生以電郵溝通	26(5.5)	77(16.4)	208(44.3)	158(33.7)	469(100.0)
有CD-Rom供學生使用	45(9.6)	139(29.5)	190(40.3)	97(20.6)	471(100.0)

學生對學習電腦的觀感

學生對學習電腦上一些定型的觀感多持不同意的意見。其中對電腦知識是難學的，不同意的佔50.5%，對男較女精於使用電腦，不同意的達52.0%，對懂電腦知識是地位的象徵，答不同意的佔51.4%。對電腦不是窮人的玩意，50.1%答不同意，而非常不同意的佔24.6%。而對文科生不用精於使用電腦，佔56.2%表示不同意，而32.9%表示非常不同意。而對不懂電腦也不會與社會脫節上，同意(41.7%)與不同意(40.4%)者也相近，分歧上以此題最大。對於學生本人的電腦知識很難有突破，48.5%仍表不同意。詳情見表十四。可見他們對定型的思想呈反對的態度，此種態度有利實現打破定型，從而促進平等。

表十四、學生對於學習電腦的觀感

	非常同意 人數 （百分比）	同意 人數 （百分比）	不同意 人數 （百分比）	非常不同意 人數 （百分比）	合計 人數 （百分比）
電腦知識是難學的	25(4.8)	174(36.5)	241(50.5)	39(8.2)	477(100.0)
男較女精於使用電腦	27(5.7)	94(19.9)	246(52.0)	106(22.4)	473(100.0)
懂電腦知識是地位象徵	25(5.2)	167(35.0)	245(51.4)	40(8.4)	477(100.0)
電腦不是窮人的玩意	34(7.2)	86(18.1)	238(50.1)	117(24.6)	475(100.0)
文科生不用精於使用電腦	11(2.3)	41(8.6)	268(56.2)	157(32.9)	477(100.0)
不懂電腦也不會與社會脫節	27(5.7)	198(41.7)	192(40.4)	58(12.2)	475(100.0)
我的電腦知識很難有突破	29(6.1)	155(32.6)	231(48.5)	61(12.8)	476(100.0)

致於普及電腦教育與社會平等之間的關係方面，佔47.6%認為可促進社會平等，43.4%認為與社會平等無關，而認為使社會更不平等者只佔9.0%。可見被訪者沒有察覺到可能導致社會不平等的一面。

最後，對於推廣電腦教育的責任應落在何處，最多人認為是政府，佔50.4%，而認為是由學校的亦佔37.3%，而認為應由家庭、朋友或個人負責的只屬極少數。詳情見表十五。

表十五、應由誰負責推廣電腦教育

誰負責推廣	人數	（百分比）
政府	234	(50.4)
學校	173	(37.3)
家庭	12	(2.6)
朋友	25	(5.4)
個人	20	(4.3)
合計	464	(100.0)

綜合分析

由以上的研究結果，我們得知被訪者的一般狀況。在此節，筆者參照香港政府所訂的資訊科技政策及措施，以及問卷所得的資料進而進行綜合分析，以探討各有關問題。

基於資訊科技的發達，及地域之間的接觸加劇，資訊科技已促使全球一體化邁出了重要的一大步。透過互聯網的聯繫，已跨越了國界的限制，在兩地的人很容易便取得溝通。我們正邁向地球村的夢想進發，而資訊科技的推動已使我們自覺或不自覺地朝著這方向去走。香港政府所期望我們的是與時並進及領先於人。

現時，普通的觀念認為懂得資訊科技知識代表進步，因此很多人有一種想法，是讓其孩子學懂使用電腦的話，他們將會容易找到一份較好的工作(Rodger, 2000)。而且普遍亦已接受資訊科技的年代已來臨，及我們根本不可抗拒它。因此，持資訊科技對我們的下一代、對一般的現代人，及對現時當前的社會也是急需要的信念已深深印在一般人的腦海中。

香港政府承擔了鼓勵推行資訊科技教育的責任，在上面筆者已列舉了政府在中學推行資訊科技的一系列措施。此等措施實際只是主要集中在提供硬件、培訓教師及支援上。政府確認了在新時代下學生的角色及學校教育的轉變，並在五年策略的文件上提出了「範式轉向」的描述，企圖從一種以課本為根據以教師為中心的教學模式，轉向成較為互動和以學生為中心的模式（註二）。為何政府要推出一系列措施，按「五年策略」文件內所述，其目標把要而言是使學生成為主動性強的學習者，使其有機會探索網上的知識，從而擴闊知識的基礎、培養其有效及迅速地處理資訊，及使其有終生學習的態度及能力。若因資訊科技發展使學習條件有改變，若以學生為主動學習者有其學習成效上的好處的話，推行「範式轉向」是值得支持的。

根據外國的經驗，要推行資訊科技教育成功，其中以下四方面也配合才可以(Piotrowski & Vodanovich, 2000)。首先便是在組織在財政上的支援及學習上的誘因方面。第二方面是教學上的配合，例如教師在資訊科技的時間運用與其他常規教學時間有否相衝突上，以及教師與學生的互動上是否恰當。第三方面是技術的層面上，例如所有的設備是否能有效地使用，以及所有的軟件是否充足，第四方面是人方面，如教師或學生對資訊科技是否接受上。對於以上四點，我們逐一討論。

政府負有重要責任

要推動資訊科技教育，主要由政府著手，其次便是由學校推行。此種想法，在我們的被訪者中亦充反映此點。（見表十五。）政府對推動政策在客觀情況上負有重要責任，主要原因是政府集政策的制訂、執行及評價於一身；其政策如何、投資的資源多寡、訂定的時間表及有否任何鼓勵措施直接影響資訊科技推行的成效，所以政府的責任才最重要。

觀其重點，香港政府現在主要還是放在技術上的使用方面，但以所學到的技術應用在何處，則缺乏批判性的思考。因而給予人一種只重手段不問結果的看法。據本研究表九的資料得知，學生應用此資訊科技主要是在娛樂、使用ICQ及下載歌曲上。而表十對電腦的熟習程度的資料亦顯示，打字及以互聯網找資料此兩種與教育有較大關係的用途並非被訪學生所最熟習者，因而有理由相信其實際用途與政府所期待的有相差。筆者認為，如何運用知識對教育的倡導者來說不能略而不提。難道我們要培養電腦黑客嗎？難道我們要培養電腦犯罪專家嗎？很明顯我們不希望這樣。但我們有否一些措施，或一些意識的灌輸，以防止他們誤用資訊科技呢？這方面政府的態度是含糊的，而其防範的能力，或在此方面的思考是不足的。不過，互聯網的使用現在仍未達成熟的階段，不設清楚的目的好處是可以百花齊放，讓其在各方面尋求發展後才加以引導也無不可，但這樣可能會浪費了寶貴的時間。筆者認為，目的應離不開促進國與國及

人與人之間的溝通，從而使社會變成一更公平的社會。而且在政治上、經濟及文化上應有保持自主的能力，而防止有人透過資訊科技而操縱別國的政治、文化及經濟。在文化入侵上的問題不能低估，Hedley在其文章中(Hedley,1999)，已點出互聯網上的主流語言是英文，及思想上來自西方，在潛移默化下對其他國家會造成文化侵略的結果。筆者不滿政府在制訂資訊科技政策時沒有探討文化侵略帶來的禍害，而好像總之來自互聯網上的資料便是有益及適合的而急不及待地接受。

資訊科技產品的價格是技術發展、供應與需求變化的混合結果，但政府可以透過稅項的增減而達到促進或平衡的目的。現時購買一部可使用互聯網搜索資料的電腦連配件，一般也在港幣一萬元左右，此金額對低下階層來說仍是一個負擔，但現時政府並無任何形式的補貼以助學生購買電腦，對低下階層來說並未能受惠。致於本研究的被訪學生，有83.4%（見表三）在家內置有電腦，他們幸運地沒有受到沒有電腦使用的苦惱，但難保其他學校的學生亦如此幸運。

使用資訊科技的誘因

現時政府是透過學校內裝設電腦及駁上互聯網，企圖增加學生使用電腦的近便性來誘發學生多利用資訊科技。從本研究的被訪資料所得，學生在使用電腦的頻率上已無問題，已能多利用資訊科技（見表八）。但政府對學生及老師購買電腦使用卻沒有任何優惠或稅項減免。除非電腦價格不斷下降至如購買電視機般便宜，否則某些形式使電腦及其周邊設備價格下跌至普羅大眾輕易消費得起仍熟需要。政府應密切注意有否因經濟問題以致請資學生在資訊科技學習上受阻，並應對現時的政策定時作出檢討。

教與學如何配合使用資訊科技

是否熟習使用資訊科技其中一要素便是是否常用，而老師在教學上有沒有使用，或他們有沒有要求學生使用也使學生是否熟習此方面有顯注的關係。在表十二的資料已顯示，學校在教學上使用power-point及使用互聯網的資料只屬間中（分別為佔43.3%及40.6%），而用CD-Rom供學生使用及老師與學生以電郵溝通更屬甚少（分別為40.3%及44.3%）。可見，老師在教學上未有充份使用資訊科技。政府在資訊科技訓練的計劃中，承諾為教師提供四萬五千個訓練名額，及在未來四年為在職教師另外提供三萬五千個訓練名額（註三）。可見在政府的了解，在職教師要再接受資訊科技的培訓，才能達到政府的要求。

不過，正如Meyer(Meyer,2001)及Lau(Lau,2000)所指出，教師在現行的教學工作上已相當沉重，再使用資訊科技在事前的準備上無形中增加其工作量、時間及精力是一個重要的問題。故此可以理解，在沒有壓力要使用資訊科技的時候，很多教師也不多願意使用。不過，若此種教學模式相當通行的話，即使某教師不太想用資訊科技在教學上也被逼要使用。此外，老師在自己不多用資訊科技的情況下，仍可鼓勵學生使用，其中如規定學生需要從互聯網上找尋資料做習作便是明顯有用的例子。學生不單可學懂在網上找資料，更可擴闊其視野及達至政府所期望的以學生為學習中心的「範式轉向」的學習方式。

技術層面上的配合

若使用一部低速度的電腦連上互聯網，及同時下載大量圖片的話，這肯定在技術上不配合需要而不能正常地操作。在設備是否有效及軟件是否充足上，因為香港政府在這幾年大力推行資訊科技教育，及提供資金供學校專門在此方面使用，故此現時香港的所有中學資訊科技的設備基本上是新款且有充足的金錢購買所需的軟件。所以香港的中學在技術層面方面未見遇到太大的問題。唯一可能的問題是有否充足的空間用來安放電腦及作電腦教學之用，原因是不少的學校在建校初時沒有考慮到有此需要，故此空間的使用對一些學校來說可能呈現緊張。在學生的家裡所有的資訊科技上，據本研究的資料顯示(見表三)，擁有電腦、寬頻上網、使用CD-Rom、使用電腦掃描器等和利用電郵和ICQ的情況普遍，技術層面上實已緊貼現時資訊科技的大潮流。

師生對資訊科技的接受程度

師生對資訊科技的接受程度是一個複雜的問題。若單看教師在使用資訊科技在教學上可見其仍完全未接受（見表十三所示）。若看學生在家中有否擁有電腦的設施（見表三所示）、其使用電腦的頻率（見表八所示）、操作電腦的熟習程度（見表十所示），可見學生普遍已接受了資訊科技。更重要的是，他們對學習電腦上的一些定型上的觀念多持不同意被定型的想法（見表十四所示）。可以簡單地說他們已接受了資訊科技，及相信定型的情況可以改變。不信定型觀念有助改變定型情況使變得較平等。學生已接受資訊科技不表示因而沒有問題，問題的關鍵在於他們如何使用資訊科技，及此種使用的方法與資訊科技教育的目的是否相符才是最重要。筆者現在把問題逐一探討。

使用電腦作何用途的啟示

據被訪者使用電腦作何用途的資料(見表九所示)得知，被訪學生主要使用電腦的用途是娛樂(42.1%)，次要用途是下載歌曲(26.9%)及第三主要用途也是下載歌曲(29.0%)。很明顯，被訪者主要把電腦作為其娛樂的工具。此外，以電腦來使用ICQ溝通上，分別佔首要用途的28.7%，次要用途的22.3%及第三用途的14.2%，是僅次於娛樂之後的熱門用途。娛樂、歌曲下載及使用ICQ與教育的關係性，遠遠低於打字或使用互聯網找尋資料與教育的關係。

若以娛樂為熟習資料訊科技的手段，或透過娛樂而得到教育的作用，或娛樂時因得到輕鬆一番使學習時處於更佳的狀態，這幾方面也是以電腦來娛樂的正面意義。不過，因娛樂的時間增加以致正常學習的時間減少的話，那麼重視娛樂及為娛樂而娛樂對學生便有損而無益了。

至於ICQ或電子郵件方面，本來只是資訊工具用作溝通之用，沒有什麼問題。相反，它們快捷及免費，更比正常的書信優勝。若恰當運用，實際是沒有問題。但我們要考慮在虛擬世界的溝通如何影響現實世界的思想及行為。

學生是基於自願及追尋開心的心態使用ICQ或電郵，因而自覺上覺得這裡有無比的樂趣。他們溝通的對象，有些是他們在日常生活彼此已認識的同學或朋友，但有些卻是他們在現實生活中不認識對方的。因為ICQ或電郵有一種不現身的作用，因此以假名假事實用來溝通是不成文的規則。此種「說者謊話不貶眼」的心態久而久之會變成理所當然，若不自覺地亦把此理念搬進現實世界的話問題便產生，真真假假使人難以知曉及分辨，現實世界中的互信的基礎便受到衝擊。

在虛擬世界中進行溝通是為追求一種莫明的快感或實際利益，萬一此種快感或利益消失，或在別處能給予的滿足更大的話，在虛擬世界內便瞬即轉向，根本不存在什麼責任。若此種在虛擬世界內功利及在乎眼前利益的心態搬進現實世界的話，更使現實世界更加功利。

在虛擬世界中亦通行一種與現實世界有異的溝通語言，例如YOU(你)簡寫成為U，在ICQ或電郵把很多字的口語當成為書面語，錯別字及夾雜英文在ICQ及電郵內亦不計較。這種為求溝通不問文法及不分書面語與口語的作風已影響到學生在正常學習上的表現。把口語夾雜在正式的習作上而不知其非的情況相當普遍。這正是普遍使用ICQ或電郵的後遺症。

理論上透過資訊科技，特別是使用互聯網可令使用者擴闊視野，但實際的情況如何會因人而異。很多時學生們會鎖定某個網址有用便常常到此瀏覽，其他的網址可能挑不起他們的興趣去看。而且，以學生熱門的電腦用途是ICQ來看，通常的溝通只是那一群大致固定的網友，亦因缺乏動機接觸到其他事物的機會亦變得不高。故此，此班人若基於此心態使用資訊科技的話，能夠擴闊視野的機會便不高。

範式轉向下學校及教師的角色重要

從表八的資料顯示，被訪學生使用電腦的頻率最多為每天也使用(佔39.9%)，其次是每週也使用(佔35.3%)。在如此使用頻密的情況下，他們能否分辨好壞，能否自律使其向有意義的學習中進發嗎?況且，他們使用電腦主要是用作娛樂、下載歌曲及使用ICQ，而較少用來打字或從互聯網中找功課的資料。如此以學生為自主的學習範或未必能達到擴闊視野及對學習上有助。

如何多借助電腦使其用在打字或從互聯網上找資料，或即使用電腦來娛樂、下載歌曲和使用ICQ也要有正確的意識，在此點上學校及教師的角色便變很重要。

學校可要求教師如何命令學生使用電腦，教師亦可因應其認為適合的情況指導學生如何使用。其中一個有效的辦法，便是把如打字或使用互聯網搜集資料變為學生功課的一部份。有此學校或老師的要求，學生才有此「需要」，才有較大的動機朝向有意義的活動中進法。不過，從本研究的資料顯示，老師與學生以電郵溝通的情況是甚少(44.3%)或絕無(33.7%)(見表十二所示)，可見他們很少利用此方法溝通。再者，從上面的資料顯示，當學生連遇到電腦的問題時也很少找老師協助(只佔4.2%)，可見教師與學生的溝通並未普遍。鼓勵師生多接觸多溝通是當務之急，否則教師便失去從旁協助學生正確學習的作用。

在範式轉向時，我們不是要摒棄老師的角色。相反，老師及學校在學生正確使用資訊科技上更扮演設定遊戲規則、監管及從旁指導的角色。學校不能低估此方面的需要，在老師的使用時間上，應顧及老師實際在此方面所花去的時間，及在他們的工作量中應反映出來。此外，我們不能假定教師在新環境下能正確輔導學生，在培訓教師使用資訊科技的課程內應包含灌輸老師如何輔導學生的技巧。

雖然，在範式轉向下，學生可以成為主動性強的學習者，但他們為何要探索與朝那方面探索很受其感覺到的「需要」所影響。若因考試的範圍、學校的要求或個

別老師的要求，學生便會朝此方向去學習。課程的編排背後有其理念及目的，教育工作者可以為學生作為主動學習者從旁協助的重要份子。所以教育工作者的角色是舉足輕重的。

結論

現在我們已經身處資訊科技的年代，因此在教育上強調資訊科技是切合時勢所需。因為資訊科技的發展，它已改變了一般的學習環境與學習方法。學生在新時代下承擔了主動學習的角色，而教育機構亦要進行範式轉向以配合新情況。

本文列舉了香港政府在資訊科技上對中學推行的一系列措施。此等措施主要集中提供硬件、培訓教師及支援上。但政府缺乏對其所提出的「範式轉向」作詳細思考，亦沒有討論在範式轉向過程中或完成後可能產生的問題。其中特別缺乏的，是如何灌輸一套正確的意識供接受資訊科技的學生，亦沒有討論如何防止他們誤用資訊科技。

再者因資訊科技而起的文化侵略問題，政府應否任由商業機構扮演主導資訊科技的角色，及因資訊科技的使用而引起的不平等問題政府不是沒有討論便是輕輕帶過。

筆者引用外國的經驗，提出了：一、學習上的誘因；二、教學上的配合；三、技術層面的設施及支援是否足夠；以及四、人的意識上是否接受資訊科技此四點來探討資訊科技教育在香港的中學推行的情況，並且就著被訪的487個個案的情況，以探討政府的目標在實際推行上的種種問題。

在學習上的誘因上，政府沒有為需要使用電腦的學生提供廉價購買電腦的優惠。而現時香港的電腦價格仍是低下家庭難以負擔的。不過，被訪的中學生幸運地有高達83.4%在家中擁有電腦，因此他們較少受到沒有電腦使用的困苦。

在教與學配合資訊科技上，被訪的中學的使用情況仍未普遍。但在技術層面上的配合方面則未見有大問題出現。教師在使用資訊科技上有部份未完全接受，但學生已早早接受了資訊科技。這反映在他們擁有的設備，有沒有ICQ、電郵的戶口或個人的網頁上。亦反映於他們使用電腦的頻率及使用作何種用途上。他們更相信一些定型化的觀念是可以得到改變的。

我們高興學生已普遍使用資訊科技，但其用途主要停留在娛樂、下載歌曲及ICQ的使用上，而與學習有直接關係的計有在互聯網上找功課的資料，及打字等工作。但很可惜在實際的情況下與學習有直接關係者則並非他們使用資訊科技的主要用途。此種使用電腦的情況，使我們擔心虛擬世界上的溝通模式搬進現實世界裡的問題，其中涉及對使用假資料認為是理所當然、功利及毫無責任的承擔和虛擬世界上的溝通語言並不遵守日常正式用語的規則，這正是全面教育所面對的頭痛問題。

筆者要指出，政府期望學生透過使用資訊科技而使他們能擴闊視野，但是否能達到此目的仍要因人而異，而學校及教師在課程的編排、習作的要求及意識的灌輸上仍有舉足輕重的作用。正正因為現在資訊科技已使學生成為學習上的主動者，要主動者有足夠的分辨是非的能力，及是否熟習資訊科技，學校及教師的角色很重要。教師在範式轉向上應該再接受培訓，使之能懂得如何輔導學生。否則關上一些資訊科技的硬件，及學生頻密地使資訊科技的設施便誤信資訊科技教育的目標已達到實在是自欺欺人。在新時代、新技術及新規則下，我們對其可能產生什麼影響仍處於摸潮的階段，我們應有一個不斷探索、接受批評及不斷檢討的心，好使資訊科技能成為真真正正造福人數的技術。

註釋

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(Received 24.10.01, accepted 3.11.01, revised 16.11.01)

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香港學校「鳥籠藝術教育」還待實質改善

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致力培育創意及想像力的藝術教育對香港社會經濟轉型應能發揮積極作用。藝術教育所培養市民藝術情操及優質文化，對市容面貌的改善及提升香港成為亞洲文化大都會有深遠的貢獻。檢視香港教育改革及學校藝術教育課程，有助反省香港學校美育發展的方向和成效。2001年6月香港教育署課程發展處公佈《學會學習》學校課程改革文件，將整體課程分類為八個學習領域：中國語文、英國語文、數學、科學、科技、個人及社會學科、藝術及體育等，學校教育強調全方位學習、課程統整、減少現有課程內容。《學會學習 -- 學習領域藝術教育》將藝術教育分為四大學習目標：培育創意及想像力、發展藝術創作技能與過程、培育評賞藝術能力、認識藝術的情境等，並以課程架構模式發展校本課程。本文從官方公佈的資料及與西方新近學校藝術教育課程比較，批判分析香港學校藝術教育的新近發展。

The Hong Kong 'Bird-caged Arts Education' Needs Substantiate Improvement

Arts Education which develops people's sense of creativity and enhances imagination will undoubtedly play an important role in the period of economic transition of Hong Kong. In addition, Arts education not only may nurture Arts and culture of a high calibre, but also will contribute to the improvement of the image of the Hong Kong city to become an Asian metropolitan. The review of the recent education reform and the change of school arts education curriculum in Hong Kong provide us with a chance on the direction and effectiveness of school arts education. In June 2001 the Curriculum Development Council of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region released the document of curriculum reform, Learning to Learning which divides all subjects into eight key learning areas: Chinese Language, English Language, Mathematics, Science, Technology, Individual and Social Subjects, Physical Education and Arts. According to the document, school education should emphasize learning from all directions with an integrated curriculum, reducing the bulky contents of the current curriculum, etc. Moreover, the document, Learning to Learn-Learning Area : Arts Education suggests four learning objectives of Arts education: Developing Creativity & Imagination, Developing Skills and Processes, Cultivating Critical Response, and Understanding Arts in Context. The document suggests the use of a curriculum framework to help school develop a school-based curriculum. This paper is to study and compare the local official documents with those of Arts education in western countries and critically analyse the problems and development of the school Arts education in Hong Kong.

本文根據最近官方的文獻、報章及現行學校教育政策作一檢視，並比較外國近年學校藝術教育的發展，分析反思香港學校藝術教育的發展困局。

筆者在2000年12月在香港教育學院舉辦的亞太美術教育會議，曾發表題為《跳出「學校鳥籠藝術教育」的框框》一文，對於現行「學校鳥籠藝術教育」現況不再贅述。教育統籌委員會第二階段諮詢文件提出為學校教育「拆牆鬆綁」，2000年11月課程發展議會發表《學會學習---課程發展路向》諮詢文件及八個學習領域諮詢文件，強調全方位學習及校本課程發展。文件建議以課程架構模式代替現行課程內容導向，並將現有學校課程各科綜合為八個學習領域：中國語文、英國語文、數學、科學、科技、個人社會及人文教育、藝術、及体育等。可是這課程改革真的會為學校教育「拆牆鬆綁」嗎？

最近課程改革發展顯示似乎走向「作繭自縛」多於「拆牆鬆綁」，即使2001年6月課程發展議會頒佈《學會學習---課程發展路向》指引式文件，並無大改變，茲列述如下：

發展「校本課程」舉棋不定

《學會學習---課程發展路向》文件頁 3 中指出「由學校以校本性質所發展的課程新措施應受到重視，並可作為制定政策的範例，供其他學校參考。」《學會學習---課程發展路向》諮詢文件摘要（頁 8）雖然明確列出中央政策與校本發展是夥伴關係，面對課程改革，無論是教育署官員或學校教師，對於甚麼是「校本課程發展」似仍然不大了解。諮詢文件推出四個月後，課程發展議會主席鄭漢鈞向傳媒公開表示：「課程發展議會的課程仍會是學校的『主要』課程，『校本』課程只會擔當補充的功能」（大公報，2001 年 3 月 1 日）。黃素蘭在其分析中質疑「這是否暗示課程改革要走回頭路？究竟『校本課程發展』的含意是甚麼？它到底是中央課程發展的補充工具，還是夥伴關係？」她指出「香港教育署倡議的校本課程設計計劃，只是一項『教材剪裁』計劃，列明要從中央建議課程中作出剪裁，這計劃能給教師提供多少決策自主空間？在羅耀珍 (LO, 1995)[2] 的研究中，便把是項計劃評為只能滿足教育署每年舉辦的教材發展；參與是項計劃的教師只是出於個人願望，甚少考慮學生的需要與學校情景等因素。由此可見，香港教育署沒有意圖真正推動『以學校為基礎』的課程發展模式。」[3]

若果《學會學習---課程發展路向》諮詢文件是提出課程架構模式來取代現有的中央課程內容模式，在概念上是進步。因為面對廿一世紀知識爆炸年代，電子媒介應用一日千里，知識和教材均可在萬維網上搜尋和交流，傳統教科書根據中央課程而設計的內容，已流於刻板而缺乏彈性。根據課程架構而設計「校本課程」是廿一世紀大勢所趨，令教學內容具靈活彈性切合生活時代及趣味性。可是，課程發展議會最近態度上的轉變，視課程改革為「補充課程」，不單混淆了課程改革發展方向，亦令教師無所適從。

《學會學習——學習領域藝術教育》並不處理改善師資質素的訴求：

現時初中或以上均由美術或音樂等本科受訓教師任教美術及設計與音樂科，但小學卻任由缺乏本科受訓的教師任教美勞及音樂科。在《學會學習——學習領域藝術教育》文件中沒有在未來十年計劃中作出任何政策上改善建議。當美國、紐西蘭、澳洲、加拿大西方國家均在其學校藝術教育課程規定須由受本科受訓教師任教[4]，香港學校藝術課程的師資要求卻遠遠落後。如何可寄望建設香港成為亞洲文化藝術大都會？而又可媲美紐約、巴黎和倫敦？又何能使小學未受本科訓練的藝術科教師在「推行校本藝術課程時，能擔任課程發展者及促進者角色[5]」？

《學會學習——學習領域藝術教育》沒有承諾承擔擴充學校藝術課程：

美國學校藝術教育課程指出藝術教育並非零碎缺乏組織，而是一個連貫性、全面性涵蓋四個藝術科目視覺藝術、音樂、舞蹈及戲劇的學習。每個科目都包括各自的技能、知識和技巧。藝術教育是一集合性專有名詞，涵蓋四個顯著不同的科目：視覺藝術、音樂、舞蹈及戲劇[6]。

加拿大學校藝術教育課程指示，藝術包括高雅藝術、普及藝術、傳統藝術、工藝、商業藝術及功能性藝術。...藝術教育列為所有在學學生的核心課程。每項藝術領域（視覺藝術、音樂、舞蹈及戲劇）須達致一定目標，使所有學生從中得益...[7]

澳洲學校藝術課程架構指出「舞蹈、視覺藝術、音樂、戲劇、及媒體藝術是藝術課程的五項主要藝術形式。每項藝術形式都是獨特並有其各自的知識、技能、技巧。在學學生均須獲致藝術教育的權利，每個學生應接受上述五項藝術教育的經驗。高中學生可專注其中有興趣的藝術形式的課程。」[8]

紐西蘭2000年學校藝術課程(The Arts in the New Zealand Curriculum 2000)

更指出四項藝術課程(包括視覺藝術、音樂、話劇和舞蹈)須列為必修科至第八年級，然後學生可修讀兩項藝術課程至第十年級。學校有兩年時間為課程調配編排作過度，到 2003 年全國各學校須全面實施。

《學會學習——學習領域藝術教育》雖然指出「藝術教育的概念架構，會納入學校課程的不同藝術形式」，但在課程發展十年規劃(頁7)只列出「修訂由小學至高中的視覺藝術課程；以及發展由小學至高中的音樂課程。(頁5)」並不包括舞蹈、話劇、及媒體藝術的課程發展規劃。

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混淆「學習目的」與「學習範疇」

《學會學習——學習領域藝術教育》5.3.1 學習範疇圖表列出藝術教育包括「培養創意及想像力」、「發展藝術創作的技能與過程」、「培養評賞藝術的能力」與「認識藝術的情境」等四項。可是文件繼續說：「建議的藝術課程，其核心是四個學習目標(頁7)」，即上述四項。根據多國學校藝術課程架構比較分析[9]，藝術教育在各學習階段（例如初小、高小、初中、高中）列出總體學習範疇，然後在不同學習階段定出程度各異層次不同的學習目標。《學會學習——學習領域藝術教育》文件卻將藝術教育學習範疇簡單化等同學習目標，以致在「附錄3」的達致四個學習目標的學習重點範例，也錯誤地將學習範疇等同學習目標列於表內，而又無法顯示出在不同學習階段不同程度要求的學習目標了。

發展「共通能力」概念偏離學理根據

《學會學習——學習領域藝術教育》文件頁8列出藝術教育對提升各種共通能力，包括創造力、批判性思考能力、協作能力、溝通能力、運用資訊科技能力、運算能力、解決問題能力、自我管理能力和研習能力等。該九種共通能力更在其附錄3「達致四個學習目標的學習重點範例」中羅列出來。亦即是說當教師效法範例編排校本的藝術課程時，便要羅列出藝術活動中的九種共通能力。這難度非常高而易達致濫竽充數，例如附錄3列出其中學習重點詳細範例：埃及文化---參觀埃及古墓學習活動，範例本身莫說本港教師與學生是否有真實機會參觀埃及和中國古墓，及有考古能力比較埃及與中國古墓特徵，這本質上是嚴謹的歷史考古探究能力的培育，但文件卻指這「探究(能力)及比較埃及與中國古墓」的活動當作是培養創意及想像力[10]。這豈非是濫竽充數地列舉共通能力的培育嗎？

筆者又引用外國課程發展例子，看如何培育學生共通能力：

1. *英國*

遠在1977年英國皇家督學署發表的「The Case for a Common Curriculum in Secondary Education to 16」[11]指出為普及教育學生須培育以下八種經驗範疇：審美與創造、倫理、語言、數學、體能、科學、社會及政治、精神性等八項。皇家督學署認為提供在學(小學至16歲)學生的課程須能顯示培育學生上述的經驗，這是學生的權利同時也是配合社會所需。……課程須建基於一個立體的架構：「一面是涵蓋各主要經驗範疇，第二面是將學習組織為各科目，學習組別或課程 (courses)，而第三面就是循序漸進的計劃達至中五畢業階段。」[12]這裡顯然指各科及各種學習經驗總體須能培養學生上述八項經驗。

2. *紐西蘭*

1993年出版的紐西蘭課程架構[13]，列出學生獲致均衡教育權利包括七項主要學習範疇：「母語及外語、數學、科學、科技、社會科學、藝術、及健康與體健等，該七種學習範疇須能培養學生八種能力，包括溝通、運算、資訊、解決難題、自我管理及競爭、社會及合作性、體能、工作及學習等八項能力 (skills)。」同樣顯示是通過共七種主要學習範疇培養八項能力，而不是通過各個別主要學習範疇培養八項能力。

但回看香港課程改革諮詢文件《學會學習——學習領域藝術教育》卻以為從每個主要學習領域學習活動，都必須能培養學生九種共通能力。以致在附錄3的學習重點範例中，出現牽強附會羅列達致各種共通能力（見上引例）的學習要求。事實上，每項學習活動性質不同，個別活動可能達致四至五種能力，每個主要學習領域對培育的共通能力有不同的側重點，但不可能每項學習活動都能達致九種共通能力。因此上述諮詢文件對培育九種共通能力的解說是欠缺學理根據及外國先例經驗。

僵化的課程設計指引

《學會學習——學習領域藝術教育》頁7指出「教師應充分了解達致藝術教育四個學習目標的學習重點，以設計能配合學生興趣和能力的藝術課程，而課程的內容應該具有連貫性，並且要循序漸進。雖然課程的廣度和深度有所分別，但每一項藝術活動都應為達致這四個學習目標而設計。（請參閱附錄2及3有關學習重點及範例。）」

對於電視廣告或電影，我們可以用批判角度鑑賞和

評論，可以探討電視廣告或電影藝術製作的情景、取景角度、配樂、剪接技巧、劇情、視覺效果、導演手法、服裝、及角色演繹等以培養學生創意和想像力。但礙於學校的設備，學生無法參與此類藝術創作的技能和製作過程。如此的學習便可能違背了上述「每一項藝術活動都應為達致這四個學習目標而設計」的指引了。

缺乏承擔的「課程發展路向」

二〇〇一年六月課程發展處向學校頒佈《學會學習——課程發展路向》(14)指引性文件，內裡不提如何改善現有 70% 未受本科培訓的小學美勞教師措施，也沒有要求學校分階段提升小學藝術課程（主要是美勞和音樂科）師資的政策和指引，只列出空泛的發展方向：(1) 培養學生的創意、開放、靈活及美感等素質，並懂得學會學習及終身學習。(2) 為學生在課堂外提供全方位的藝術學習經歷。(3) 為學生提供一個均衡的藝術課程及多元化的藝術經歷。（見頁 50）

若細閱《學會學習——課程發展路向》藝術教育「主要關注項目」（見頁 50）列出有三項：

- 高中學生藝術學習經歷的權利
  為高中學生提供學習藝術的時間，多給他們學習藝術的機會，培養他們對藝術的終身興趣。
- 藝術的綜合學習
  藝術的綜合學習，可以深化學生對不同藝術形式之間及對其他學習領域的學習。例如：透過學習十八世紀歐洲的政治及社會背景，學生會更容易明白古典樂期音樂的發展來由。然而，藝術的綜合學習不應該被視為一個綜合藝術課程，教師亦不會被要求教授一些他們並不擅長的藝術學科。
- 多元化的藝術學習經歷
  要提供一個多元化的藝術學習經歷，並不一定要在現時的正規課程上增加新的科目。如資源許可的話，學校可以撥出時間，教授音樂及視覺藝術以外的藝術形式。但是，學校更應提倡全方位學習及藝術的綜合學習，讓學生循不同的途徑來擴闊他們的藝術學習經歷。

(1) 這裡一方面提出高中學生藝術學習經歷的權利，但卻沒有明確要求學校為每一位高中生開設有關藝術課程。上文第（二）項筆者已列舉美國、澳洲及加拿大（甚至紐西蘭）學校課程均強調藝術是學校教育的核心課程，學生在高中須專注修讀至少一項藝術課程。《學會學習——課程發展路向》在這方面含糊其詞，那麼學校亦可視「高中學生藝術學習經歷」為一項課外活動，與現時學校課外活動情況沒有明顯分別。例如舉辦班際歌詠比賽便算達到這種藝術學習經歷的要求了。

(2) 綜合藝術學習原意是擴闊學生學習領域，使學習更生活化趣味化，亦鍛鍊學生思維及視野。例如多媒體藝術本身已包括科技、音樂、視覺藝術及演藝等的綜合性活動。美國的藝術課程標準已包括以課程統整模式，亦有建議在原有四項藝術形式外的綜合性活動，例如每一班都有均等機會在一星期五天，分別上音樂、視覺藝術、舞蹈、戲劇，及綜合性藝術活動的正規課程教節。(15)

上述《學會學習——課程發展路向》藝術教育「主要關注項目」所指的藝術的綜合學習，「例如透過學習十八世紀歐洲的政治及社會背景，學生會更容易明白古典樂期音樂的發展來由。」其實現有不少文科學生修讀音樂同時亦會修讀歷史科。學校可理解為在現有課程結構內稍加重一點綜合元素，便是藝術的綜合學習。課程發展處沒有在這方面提出策略性的建議。例如可建議在每一學習階段全年的藝術課程，只少有一至三項的綜合性藝術活動或課程統整。

(3) 上文第（三）項已指出在美國、加拿大、澳洲（甚或紐西蘭）的學校藝術課程是包括音樂、視覺藝術、話劇和舞蹈等四至五項（包括媒體）藝術正規課程。香港英語基金學校(English Schools Foundation 是由政府資助英國學制模式的國際學校)，根據英國國家課程，除音樂及美術，還包括戲劇正規課程，初中學生必修這三科藝術科目。可是《學會學習——課程發展路向》藝術教育的「主要關注項目」指出：「要提供一個多元化的藝術學習經歷，並不一定要在現時的正規課程上增加新的科目。但學校更應提倡全方位學習及藝術的綜合學習，讓學生循不同途徑來擴闊他們的藝術學習經歷。」這可被學校理解為安排學生集體訂票觀賞一齣話劇或參觀博物館，便達到這項要求，與學校現況沒有本質上的改動。

《學會學習——課程發展路向》藝術教育所提出「主要關注項目」顯示缺乏策略性的發展要求、計劃和指引，只提出空泛的「關注」，令學校校長和教師對現有缺失的學校藝術課程無須作結構性改革，停留在空泛的「關注」而無須實質的改善。

總結

(1) 課程改革目的是讓學生有均衡教育，「拆牆鬆綁」，刪減一直以來臃腫內容導向的課程，走向課程架構模式，讓教師能根據課程架構下各學習階段不同程度

的學習目標自行發展及設計校本藝術課程。可是《學會學習——學習領域藝術教育》文件帶出混淆學習領域與學習目標的概念，進而無限擴充共通能力滲透於每個主要學習範疇，無視各個別主要學習範疇的特性。這個發展趨向易走向無所不包的課程統整，唯有如此才能「牽強附會」地達致培養學生九大共通能力。

(2) 一方面學校有關藝術科目(現時只有美術與音樂科)科主任和教師被要求「推行校本藝術課程時，要擔任課程發展者及促進者的角色」的專業能力，另一方面教育署卻不處理在小學未受本科教育培訓的教師任教美勞及音樂的師資編制，明顯是強人之難而不理會素質保證和健全制度。

(3) 美國在 1997 年總統府藝術及人文學科委員發表了《創意美國》(Creative America)[10] 報告書，研究報告強調培育美國下一代的創意，必須大力發展藝術教育，藝術(ARts)是與讀 (Reading)、寫 (WRiting) 算 (ARithmetic) 4 個 R 都是學校教育的基礎技能，藝術更是學習的核心(Arts at the Core of Learning---http://artsedge.kennedy-center.org/professional_resources/advocacy/evid/elog-evid.html)。該份報告書更列出以下具體建議：

a) 高中生須修讀藝術課程習作作為畢業條件之一；
b) 大學入學條件須包括曾修讀藝術及人文學科；
c) 小學教師培訓証書課程須包括必修藝術課程習作；
d) 以全國教育進度評核指引，為全國各州各學習階段定期評估藝術教育的進度；
e) 藝術教育效能對學生成就，個人成長與正面的社會行為關係作廣泛研究；
f) 為藝術有特別才能的學生提供高級程度的培育計劃等。

反觀，香港課程發展處最近發表的《學會學習 課程發展路向》沒有實質而具體的課程發展策略，連擴闊學校現有藝術課程都不願提出，又沒有回應檢討改善的現有小學美術及音樂科教師資格的政策訴求。相比底下，香港又憑什麼可藉藝術教育發展香港成為亞洲文化大都會的「夢想」？教育署其中一個託詞是下放權力給學校作為校本管理，故不欲發放指引給學校。如是，教育署可否容許學校聘校工當教師？現有教育資助則例規定學校必須聘任合資格的學歷及教育文憑才可任職教師。為何教育署對初中術科(如體育、音樂、美術與設計等科目)要求須由專科培訓教師任教，而對小學術科卻無此要求呢？那麼教育署正持雙重標準：仍維持以學科為主導的學制，仍輕視藝術教育之實，亦無視西方國家重視發展學校藝術教育的現況。在文件上顯示出在學校藝術教育方面缺乏承擔而只提出缺實質內容的「課程發展路向」。

建議

(1) 課程發展處將於二〇〇二年頒佈各學習領域在各不同學習階段的學習目標，希望屆時不應再出現混淆學習領域與學習目標的現象，令藝術課程教師真正能根據該等學習目標，自行設計靈活而多樣化的校本藝術課程。

(2) 教育署有責任及早訂下配套施，包括訂下指標及指引，使小學在五至六年過渡期，規定現有美術(現稱美勞)及音樂課程須由受本科教育培訓的師資任教。根據現有教師培訓計劃進度，五至六年內要達到此目標綽綽有餘。

(3) 課程發展處應可在兩年內至少先制訂戲劇課程架構，讓有興趣學校可及早聘任有關師資「合法」地開設戲劇正規課程，提供多元化學校藝術教育。

(4) 教育署應制訂明確中學教育指引，在未來五年計劃中學校須為所有高中生開設有關體藝課程，使高中學生能獲致均衡教育的權利。

明確的課程發展策略代替課程發展處消極的「主要關注項目」，豈不是更能彰顯藝術課程的發展路向嗎？

註：

(1) 香港特別行政區課程發展議會 (2000)《學會學習——課程發展路向諮詢文件摘要》，頁 3。

(2) 羅耀珍(1995) *A Study of the Implementation of the School Based Curriculum Project Scheme in Hong Kong*. Unpublished PhD. Thesis. Hong Kong: The University of Hong Kong.

(3) 黃素蘭 (2001)「校本課程發展——未容開展已展縮」以題為「一個未有共識的課題」，香港：信報 (24.3.2001)。

(4) 見附註 12 及澳洲維多利亞州教育、就業及培訓局網頁State of Victoria, Department of Education, Employment and Training：http://www.sofweb.vic.edu.au/hrm/recruit/need.htm

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(5) 香港特別行政區課程發展議會 (2000)。《學會學習——學習領域藝術教育》5.6，頁 13。

(6) 見網址 http://www.dpi.state.nc.us/curriculum/artsed

(7) 見網址 http://www.sasked.gov.sk.ca/curr_inst/artsed/index.html

(8) ACT Dept. Of Education & Training (1993) The Arts Curriculum Framework. p.7 & p.11

(9) 余樹德 (2000)。「跳出學校『鳥籠藝術教育』的框框」香港教育學院 2000 亞太區美術教育會議上發表的論文。

(10) 同 (3) 頁 48。

(11) Her Majesty's Inspectorate (1977) "The Case for a Common Curriculum in Secondary Education to 16", extract from Tim Horton and Peter Raggatt (1983). Challenge and change in the Curriculum. U.K.: The Open University. Pp.91-96.

(12) 同 (6) 頁 96。

(13) Ministry of Education, Wellington (1993). The New Zealand Curriculum Framework. p.5.

(14) 中華人民共和國香港特別行政區課程發展議會 (2001)。《學會學習——課程發展路向》

(15) Phillip C. Dunn (1995). *Creating Curriculum in Art*. The National Art Education Association. pp.35-37.

(16) President Committee on Arts and Humanities (1997). Creating America : A Report to the President. U.S.

(17) 見網址 http://artsedge.kennedycenter.org/professional_resources/advocacy/evid/elog-evid.html

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(Received: 21.9.01, accepted: 20.10.01, revised: 22.10.01)

在職普通話教師培訓課程學員對行動研究的看法

關之英

香港育學院中文系

教育研究以前被認為是大專校教研人員才會參與的工作，一般的前線老師最多只會協助研究的進行，甚少自己計畫做研究。香港教育學院在職普通話教師培訓課程，要求老師做行動研究。本論文的目的是：探討參加該課程的中小學普通話教師對做行動研究的看法，以及他們曾嘗試做行動研究的範疇，藉此讓有意做行動研究的普通話老師得以參考，同時也會看行動研究與普通話老師專業成長的關係。

On The Views of the Participants of Putonghua Teachers In-service Training Course Towards Action Research

Educational research has previously been regarded as activity undertaken by both teaching and research members of tertiary institutions. Frontline schoolteachers, rarely conducting research on their own, usually take up the role of an assistant at most. However, the Hong Kong Institute of Education has made it a requirement for participants of the Putonghua Teachers In-service Training Course to conduct action research. The objectives of this article are threefold: (1) to survey course participants' views with regards of conducting action research; (2) to present a profile of the scopes of their action research for the reference of Putonghua-teachers who are interested in conducting such research; and (3) to assess the relationship between action research and professional growth of Putonghua teachers.

一、背景

香港教育學院的在職教師培訓課程，提供給在職老師可以暫時停職帶薪，到學院進行十六星期全日進修的機會。小學和中學普通話在職教師培訓課程的內容包括三部分：一、語言知識和能力，目的是提高普通話老師的語言能力；二、語言教學理論和應用，目的是提高普通話老師的教學能力；三、專業發展，目的是介紹行動研究的基本理論，及實踐行動研究。以往老師較少參與研究工作，而該培訓課程要求老師做研究。本論文的目的是：探討參加該課程的中小學普通話教師對做行動研究的看法，以及他們曾嘗試做行動研究的範疇，藉此讓有意做行動研究的普通話老師得以參考，同時也會看行動研究與普通話老師專業成長的關係。

二、行動研究

為甚麼在職普通話教師在職培訓課程要加入「行動研究」的元素呢？這裏有必要先介紹行動研究在教育上應用的經過。

1. 起源及發展

行動研究源自美國。1933年至45年，柯立爾（Collier）擔任美國聯邦政府印第安人事務局長，他主張讓局內局外的人共同合作研究，改善不同種族的關係，他稱這種方法為行動研究。他認為：這種研究的結果應為實踐者服務，研究者應鼓勵實踐者參與研究，在行動中解決自身的問題。

四十年代，美國社會心理學家勒溫（Lewin）與他的學生，在對不同人種之間的人際關係進行研究時，再提出行動研究一詞。他們當時與猶太人和黑人合作進行

研究，這些實踐者以研究員的姿態參與研究，積極對自己的境遇進行反思，力圖改變自己的現狀。勒溫解釋行動研究是：要解決問題，就要有所行動；要有效的行動，就要有慎密的觀察。行動研究法可把科學研究者與實際工作者聯結起來，設計不同的研究計劃去解決種種問題。

五十年代，芝加哥大學（University of Chicago）教授柯雷（Corey）在《改進學校設施的行動研究》一書，把「行動研究法」介紹給教育界人士，行動研究開始進入美國教育研究領域。柯雷在他主持的「合作研究計畫」（Cooperative Research Project 1952）中，大量提供教師參與研究的機會，並以此作為教師進修的途徑。

五十年代末期，行動研究很快便在美國被視為教師進修的模式，其功能並不限於探究教育問題，解決教育問題，同時更以教師本身的學習和發展為目的，提倡「教師即教育探究者」（teacher as learner）的理念，行動研究成為教育專業化的一個重要元素。

六十年代中期，由於實証主義在社會科學領域十分流行，技術性的"研究　發展　傳播"(RDD)模式多為教育界所用，行動研究曾沉寂一時。與此同時，行動研究卻在英國及歐洲國家崛起。

史登豪（Stenhouse）主持英國的「人文課程發展計劃」（Humanities Curriculum Project, HCP 1967-1972），推動「以學校為基礎的課程改革」（School-based curriculum reform）。在這個改革中，教師必須共同參與探究教學、學習、評鑑及行政管理，所以史登豪倡導：「教師即研究者」（teacher as researcher）的概念。史氏曾為行動研究辯護，他說：教師經由行動研究所得的實際知識並不會因缺乏科學研究的嚴謹而失之粗疏，因為在教育行動研究中，教師自我反省並透過互相批判和公開討論所得的結果，是令教師專業成長的其中一個途徑，這與從驗証假設所得的統計意義是不同的。史氏更在任教的東安吉里亞大學（University of East Anglia）以教育行動研究模式作為碩士以上高級學位的教師進修課程的元素之一，並成立「教室行動研究網路」（Classroom Action Research Network, CARN），供教師討論並推廣行動研究結果。1993年，更名為協同行動研究網路（CoHaborative Action Research Network，CARN）。

伊利略（Elliott，1991）認為行動研究可以幫教師檢查及改進自己的教學行為。他特別強調行動研究與教育革新有密切關係，並以行動研究作為教師專業發展的形式。

行動研究能在英國能紮根，主要是它有以下的特點：

1. 逐漸揚棄傳統教育研究中心強調心理計量的研究典範，重視自然或質的研究取向（naturalistic approach/ qualitative approach）及自然觀察，個案研究或小樣本研究設計。
2. 鼓勵教師對其教案中的教學行為與情境進行直接研究與持續不斷的自我反省。教師從事行動研究已成為教學的一部分，不再是互相獨立的兩項工作。
3. 重視教師在教育改革與課程發展中所擔任的角色，鼓勵由下而上（bottom-up）的教育革新途徑。
4. 以教育行動研究作為促進教師專業發展的途徑，所以教育行動研究也成了應用最廣的教師進修模式，大多數行動研究理論家同時也是教師進修計劃的領導人。
5. 以行動研究作為統整教育理論與教育實際的橋樑，強調實踐的重要性。
6. 受政府或其他單位資助，並結合高等教育學位頒授課程模式（award-bearing model），使行動研究成為教師最受歡迎的進修方式。

香港教育學院的小學普通話教師在職培訓課程，自一九九五年開始，要求修讀的老師（學院稱他們為學員），自己著手做行動研究，並要撰寫行動研究報告。這個培訓課程同時與香港公開大學及浸會大學掛鉤，修讀完培訓課程，取得及格資格的學員，如果也在以上其中一所大學修讀小學學士學位課程，可以向大學申請豁免若干學分。學員的行動研究報告也經公開大學作校外評審。換言之，行動研究是讓參加培訓的小學普通話老師，獲得學士學位的一個途徑，行動研究成為取得專業地位的門檻。中學普通話教師在職培訓課程在一九九七年開辦，由於中學教師本身大都已有大學學位，所以該課程沒有和本港的大學學位掛鉤，但行動研究也是該課程的元素。

2. 行動研究的定義

為行動研究下定義的學者眾多。二十世紀五十年代，柯雷（Corey，1953）給的定義是：「行動研究是實際工作者以科學的方法來研究他們自己的問題，希望能夠對他們的決定和行動有所引導、改正並加以評價的過程」。康乃爾大學（Cornell University）的柏萊克威爾（Blackwell）認為行動研究是一種方法，他說：「所謂行動研究，是一種研究的方法，其研究對象是學校中的問題，其研究人員是學校教職員，其研究目的是改進

學校的各項措施，其重要性在於企圖使教育實際與教育理論密切配合，且能給予實際工作者深刻焉永的印象」。九十年代，伊利略(Elliott，1991)給的定義是：「行動研究是對社會情境的研究，是從改善社會情境中行動質量的角度來進行研究的一種研究方向」。《國際教育百科全書》把行動研究介定為反思的研究：「由社會情境（教育情境）的參與者為提高對所從事的社會或教育實踐的理性認識，為加深實踐活動及其依賴的背景的理解所進行的反思研究（Husen，1985）」。

七十年代，台灣學者呂廷和（1971）認為：「對於迫切問題的解決，不採全面研究的方式，而就已有的資料，提出針對問題的改進計畫，一面付諸實施，一面注意搜集事實，以証實計畫的效果，並隨時加以修訂，以適應實際需要，但不作深入而透徹的探討以改進計畫的價值。這一方法著重於促進發展而改進，稱之為行動研究法」。李祖壽（1979）提到行動研究在教育的應用，他說：「行動研究是現代教育研究的方法之一，它也是一種團體法，注重團體歷程，團體活動，不過特別重視行動，尤其注重實際工作人員一面行動，一面研究；從行動中尋找問題，發現問題；更從行動中解決問題，驗證真理，謀求進步。在教育方面，它是行政、課程、教學各方面謀求革新的重要方法」。吳明清（1991）從幾方面看行動研究的特質，他說：「行動研究也是一種特殊形式的研究，其特徵在於『研究目的與行動目的結合』、『研究內容與行動內容結合』、『研究者與行動者結合』。換言之，行動研究由實際從事教育工作者(通常即教師）擔任研究工作，以學校或教室內極待改進的實際教育活動為研究內容，而以改進那些教育活動為目的。近年來教育學術界流行『教師即研究者』(teacher as researcher）的口號，就是行動研究的特色」。

總括來說，行動研究有以下的特質（黃光雄、簡茂發 1997）：

1. 行動研究以解決教學的問題為主要的導向；
2. 主要從事行動研究的人員就是實際的工做人員，即教師；
3. 從事行動研究的人員就是應用結果的人員，也就是教師；
4. 行動研究的環境就是真實的工作環境，及學校或教室；
5. 行動研究結合了對問題的「研究」與「解決」；
6. 行動研究有時需要仰賴專家的協助，但專家只是從旁指導；
7. 行動研究的過程採取共同的計畫、執行與評鑑的方式進行；
8. 行動研究的問題或對象(往往是學生)具有特殊性；
9. 行動研究的計畫是屬於發展性的計畫，及在過程中會不斷改變；
10. 行動研究獲得的結論只應用於工作進行的場所，一般不作理論的推論；
11. 行動研究的結果除了使現狀獲得改進之外，同時也使實際工作人員自己獲得專業成長；
12. 評論行動研究的價值，側重於對實際情況引發的改善程度，而不在於知識量增加之多寡。

3. 行動研究與教師專業成長的關係

傳統的觀念認為：教師只要根據課程的要求，能教導學生一定的知識，處理課堂秩序，所謂：傳道，授業，解惑，那便足夠了，何必要做甚麼研究呢？

現代的教育觀念認為：教師除了要理解本學科的知識及其結構，掌握必要的教學技能等外，還需要擁有擴展的專業特性(extended professionalism)，它的內容包括：教師會對自己教學實踐質疑，並探討作為進一步發展的基礎；教師有研究自己教學實踐的信念和技能；有在實踐中對教學理論進行質疑和檢驗的意向；願意接受其他教師或研究人員來觀察他的教學實踐，並就此進行坦率而真誠的討論。總而言之，擴展的專業特徵是：有能力通過較系統的自我研究，通過研究別的老師和通過在課堂研究中對有關理論的檢驗，實現專業上的自我發展。（施良方，1999）

教育行動研究與教師的專業發展有甚麼關係？陳惠邦引用許多文獻說明行動研究能促進教師的專業發展。例如行動研究有助提升教師對教學的信心（Webb，1990），縮短教師教學理想或熱忱與實踐之間的差距（Elliott，1991；Adelman，1989）；使教師了解教學的真貌，以修正他所知的教學理論（Kemmis，1989），並有助教師內化持續探究教學實際的專業信念（Day，1997）。許多參與行動研究的教師都認為：教育行動研究是他個人專業發展歷程中最深刻與最重要經驗，而且也是最獨特的改變或成長經歷（Grundy，Kemmis 1982）。錢納（Zeichner，1993）指出，教育行動研究是各種教師發展方案（Staff Development Programs）中較具效率，因為教師可以增加知識改進實務工作，而且也能針對舊有的心態與慣性，發展出批判反省獨立思考的能力。

歐用生（1996）說：「行動研究是實際工作者為解決自己的問題，改進實際而作的一種研究，是反省性的實際工作者專業發展的一種形式。教師研究自己的教學

1 除行動研究報告外，學員還需完成一篇論文及一次考試。

情境，不僅能解決實際的課程問題，並能從研究經驗中獲益。行動研究不僅能解決問題，並使理論更適切，因此能融合理論和實際的差距」。因此，行動研究不但幫助老師解決教學的問題，而且能提高教師的自信心，所以行動研究是讓老師達至專業成長其中的一個途徑。

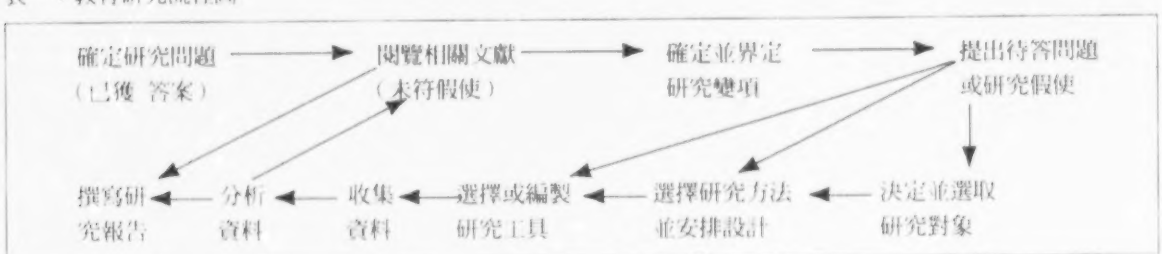
二十一世紀是教學改革的年代，各地的教育局都紛紛提出改革的口號，提高教學的素質。按以前的經驗，每一次的改革，教師都只是政策的執行者。教育改革接踵而來，教師為適應新政策便疲於奔命，所以許多教師都害怕教改，抗拒教改，他們往往成為教改的受害者。而教改的失敗，往往是由於教師這一關無法通過。這種由上而下的教育改革情況，往往變成上有政策，下有對策。上層的教改理念，到實行時走了樣。主要原因是：教師跟不上。要改變這種情況，最好是由教師做起，讓教師成為研究者、設計者或是一個專業的探究者，而不再是被動教師匠。教師和專家一起進行研究，從行動研究中體驗教改的精神。教改的成敗，在乎教師能否有探究和反思能力；只有教師參予改革，這樣的教改才有生命力。因此，越來越多人把研究看成教師專業活動的一個組成部分。這個變化使教師的專業活動多了一個不斷發展的延續線，同時也建立了一種教師新形象。

近幾年來，有些教育的網站也提供行動研究的資料，如台灣的 http://www.iest.edu.tw/，提供台灣實施九年一貫新課程的行動研究報告；香港教育學院也有兩個關於行動研究的網站，一是：http://ci-lab.ied.edu.hk/aris，名為行動研究互助網（Action Research Initiatives & Support 簡稱 ARIS），介紹世界各地進行行動研究的教育經驗；二是：http://www.ied.edu.hk/esnie，主要介紹特殊學習需要的行動研究。由此看來，教師參與行動研究的風氣愈來愈普遍了。

三．課程設計

在香港教育學院小學和中學的普通話教師在職培訓課程中，有一個十五課時的課題—「行動研究的基本理論」，筆者曾擔任小學（1998年981期）及中學（2000年001期）這一個課題的導師，該課題的內容是要讓學員認識何謂行動研究，以及學習自己做行動研究。由於行動研究也是教育研究的一個類型，所以設計本科教學內容時，曾參考吳明清（1993）的教育研究流程，吳氏把研究分為以下的步驟：

表一：教育研究流程圖



根據以上內容，本科十五課時安排大致如下：

表二、行動研究的基本理論課時的安排

課次	內容
1	教師要做研究的原因
2	行動研究的源起和特點
3	教育研究與行動研究的分別
4	行動研究的模式和流程
5	行動研究的範疇
6	如何確定研究問題
7	文獻參考的取向
8	界定研究變項
9	決定研究題目

課次	內容
10	如何寫待答問題或研究假設
11	安排研究設計及撰寫研究計劃書
12	決定研究樣本及研究工具
13	研究結果及討論舉例
14	建議及分析舉例
15	研究報告的寫法

除了講授課外，學員會分若干小組，每組有組導師，學員會與組導師有十五次(每次二小時)的小組課，一起商討行動研究的題目、行動研究設計，然後學員會到自己任教的學校實踐，實踐後會與組導師及同組同學一起商討，最後分析結果，並寫行動研究報告。這三十節的小組課的安排大致如下：

表三：行動研究小組課的安排

次數	內容
1	教學反思
2	討論研究的問題
3	文獻閱讀
4	文獻閱讀，確定研究範疇
5	文獻閱讀，訂訂研究題目
6	文獻閱讀，修訂研究題目
7	討論研究設計
8	界定研究變項
9	確立研究樣本及研究工具
10	寫研究計畫書
11	準備行動（教學設計）
12	教學實踐周[2]
13	小組匯報，介紹教學實踐情況，資料整理及分析
14	寫研究報告（摘要、內容各項要點）
15	寫研究報告，交行動研究報告

四．普通話教師對行動研究的看法

教學的第一節，筆者用問卷（附錄一）向學員調查他們對行動研究的看法。小學組有33人（1998年981期），中學組有學員25人（2000年001期），學員即時填寫，回收有58份問卷，回收率是100%。以下是問卷調查的結果。

(1) 普通話教師應否做研究

表四：普通話教師應否做研究

組別	應	不應	無作答
小學教師	22（66.7）[3]	10（30.3）	1（3.0）
中學教師	21（84.0）	4（16.0）	／
合共	43（74.1）	14（24.1）	1（1.7）

大部分老師都認為老師應該做研究，他們的意見是：1. 研究能提高教學素質，從研究能深入認識某方面問題，有助教學；2. 可以找出語言教學的新方向；3. 掌握實際情況，以便與理論結合；4. 擴闊視野，提高專業。

認為不應該做研究的老師以小學組較多，比中學組多出一倍。他們的意見是：1. 工作量太多，沒有餘力，沒有時間做研究；2. 用處不大；3. 層次太高，太專業，有小學組的老師寫："老師的雜務繁多，研究工作還是留給一些專業人員做吧"。

(2) 老師有否做研究的能力

表五：老師可否做研究

組別	可以	不可以	無作答
小學教師	23（69.7）	7（21.2）	3（9.0）
中學教師	24（96.0）	1（4.0）	／
合共	47（81.0）	8（13.8）	3（5.2）

認為老師可以做研究的，以中學老師較多，佔九成，而且有21位用書面表示意見，說：他們已有經驗，且容易找到研究對象，並表示：當然可以，視乎有沒有心去做研究。小學老師也有超過半數認為可以研究，有8人寫上意見，理由與中學老師相若。

認為不可以的原因是：上課節數多，工作量太大，無力應付，加上課程緊迫和缺乏有關知識，所以不可以做研究。

(3) 曾否參與研究

表六：曾否參與研究

組別	有	沒有	無作答
小學教師	2（6.1）	30（90.9）	1（3.0）
中學教師	3（12.0）	22（88.0）	／
合共	5（8.6）	52（89.7）	1（1.7）

大部分普通話教師都沒有參與過研究工作，只有2位中學老師分別參與中國文學及普通話教學法研究，小學老師則有1位曾參與體育科的研究。

(4) 對做研究的興趣

表七：對做研究的興趣

組別	有	沒有	無作答
小學教師	9（27.3）	22（66.7）	2（6.0）
中學教師	13（52.0）	12（48.0）	／
合共	22（37.9）	34（58.6）	2（3.5）

2. 每學員在這周內要回原任學校進行全天一整日的教學的教學實踐

3. （）內數字為百分比，下同。

中學組老師有超過半數表示對做研究有興趣，而小學組老師只有一成多表示對研究有興趣。沒有興趣的主要原因是：工作忙，沒有時間，以及沒有方向，沒有方法，不知從何入手，和只是兼教普通話科，還有是：不知道研究有何效果，所以沒有興趣。

(5) 對行動研究的認識

表八：對行動研究的認識

組別	知道	不知道	無作答
小學教師	3（9.1）	29（87.9）	1（3.0）
中學教師	6（24.0）	19（76.0）	／
合共	9（15.5）	48（82.8）	1（1.7）

大部分老師都不知道甚麼是行動研究，而填寫知道的，只是剛從開學日的介紹聽過，只有2位小學老師是從其他大專院校的教育學位課程知道甚麼是行動研究。當要求老師寫出行動研究的定義時，有些以為是：做一些調查，或是：通過實地考察，找出解決方法，大部分都未能說出行動研究的特點。

從問卷統計結果顯示：大部分老師都認為教師應參與研究工作，他們同意教師參與研究可提高教學素質，但無奈工作太忙，所以對行動研究的興趣不大，尤以小學組老師較明顯。中學組老師對做研究的能力有較強的自信心，超過九成表示自己有做研究的能力，這或許與中學老師的自我形象較高有關。此外，在修讀在職培訓課程之前，大部分老師都不知道甚麼是行動研究。

五．學員修讀後的情況

在「行動研究基本理論」的最後一節課時，筆者以不記名問卷（附錄二）調查中學組學員修讀後的意見。中學組原有學員25人，當天有2人缺席，問卷回收23份，以下是統計結果：

表九、 中學組學員修讀後意見[5]

題號	內容	同意	不同意
1	對行動研究有信心	18（78.3）	5（21.7）
2	看其他行動研究報告時能了解	18（78.3）	5（21.7）
3	了解行動研究的流程	21（91.3）	2（8.7）
4	會訂研究題目	20（87.0）	3（13.0）
5	知道如何搜集文獻	17（73.9）	6（26.1）
6	會撰寫研究目的	19（82.6）	4（17.4）
7	會撰寫待答問題	18（78.3）	5（21.7）
8	會撰寫研究假設	12（52.2）	10(43.5）
9	會決定研究設計	14（60.9）	9（39.1）
10	會決定研究樣本	16（69.6）	7（30.4）
11	會選擇研究方法	17（73.9）	6（26.1）
12	會選擇研究工具	18（78.3）	5（21.7）
13	會撰寫研究結果	16（69.6）	7（30.4）
14	會撰寫摘要	17（73.9）	5（21.7）

如果比對上文表八，開始時有七成（76%）的中學組老師表示不知道甚麼是行動研究，在十五課時後，大部分老師明白行動研究的流程（91.3%），並會訂研究題目（87%）、安排研究設計（60.9%）、會寫研究結果，以及對行動研究有信心（78.3%），說明老師在修讀後，自己可以著手做行動研究。有三位學員還表示希望在以下方面有多一些認識：(1)統計；(2)如何設計問卷及怎樣分析結果；(3)多看錄影帶以吸收教學實況經驗。由此看來，學員並不抗拒行動研究，而且還想學更多如何做研究的知識。

由於教學時間突然改動，筆者未能在小學組做同樣的問卷，未能顯示小學組學員修讀後的意見，但有兩位小學組的學員曾把他們在學院的行動研究報告在雜誌或學報上發表[6]。學員對自己研究的肯定，表示他們對行動研究有信心。

六．行動研究的範疇

參加培訓的學員，在小組課時與組導師共同商討研究題目及研究設計後，在上課的第十二周至有，便會回到原校，進行至少三教節的教學實踐，嘗試是否能解決他們在反思時，提出的教學問題。在進行教學時，他們便會觀察所用的方法，能否針對學生學習普通話的困難，然後他們便會按教學的記錄或學生的習作，寫成行動研究報告。從九五年開始，學院的導師把一些值得參考的報告存放在學院的中國語文中心，讓其他學員參閱。筆者把收集的普通話學員行動研究的題目，加以歸納和分析，看到香港普通話老師最注意的是學生哪方面的學習問題，和老師嘗試用甚麼方法解決問題。筆者一共收集了93個題目，小學組有65個，而中學組有28個，除卻相同外，有67個題目，可歸為以下幾個範疇：

4 筆者曾任教小學和中學普通話組「行動研究基本理論」課題，因時間關係，只曾向中學組學員作問卷調查

5 數字表示人數，（）內數字為百分比

6 兩位學員及報告分別是：

(1) 劉暢元（1996年學員）（以「漢語拼音速成法」教小一學生聲母）載於《現代教育通訊》第42期

(2) 陳志成（1997年學員）（「語法分析法」對小學生學習普通話輕聲的效果研究）載於《基礎教育學報》第八卷第一期，香港，香港中文大學香港教育研究所

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表九：普通話科行動研究的範疇

範疇	學生學習普通話的問題	教師採用方法	年級
語音	1. 掌握發音	注音識字	小一
	2. 四聲、輕聲及韻母	漢語拼音直讀法	小二
	3. 比較拼讀不同效果	數調法和定調法	小四
	4. 分辨四聲的能力	數調法	小四
	5. 學習有介音音節的不同效果	聲介合母法和三拼法	小六
	6. 愉快地學習語音知識	綜合法	小學，沒有說明年級
	7. 分辨四聲	直接法	中一
	8. 分辨舌尖前音（z,c,s）與分辨舌尖後音（zh、ch、sh、r）	課堂活動	中一
	9. 拼讀介音 u	三拼法	中一
	10. 比較二者對指定詞語發音的效果	聆聽和操練兩種手段	中二
	11. 學習前後鼻韻母（an、ang、en、eng、in、ing）	信息差交際活動	中三
	12. 提高拼讀能力	以電腦作為自學工具	中學，沒有說明年級
	13. 掌握言語技巧	背誦	中學，沒有說明年級
聆聽	14. 聽辨四聲	對比教學活動	小三
	15. 聽取重點	口語教材	小四
	16. 聽說能力	功能法	中一
	17. 四聲的聽辨活動	發現法	中一
說話	18. 借物的交際能力	功能教學	小一
	19. 自我介紹的交際能力	操練及情境對話	小一
	20. 互相認識	功能法	小一
	21. 打招呼	功能法	小一
	22. 拒絕一答應的交際能力	功能法	小二
	23. 進行說話練習	角色扮演	小二
	24. 道歉的能力	功能法	小二
	25. 購物能力	功能與情境結合活動	小二
	26. 買文具的交際能力	功能法	小二
	27. 邀約生日會	功能法	小二
	28. 進行購物的能力	語境練習	小三
	29. 進行人物介紹交際活動	功能教學法	小三
	30. 講禮貌的交際能力	綜合教學法	小三
	31. 詢問和回答	功能法	小三
	32. 掌握互相認識的交際語言能力	功能法	小四
	33. 打電話的交際語言能力	功能法	小四
	34. 買東西的交際能力	情境教學	小四
	35. 邀約的交際能力	功能法	小四
	36. 在快餐店買早點	功能法	小四
	37. 問路	功能法	小五
	38. 問路的交際能力	情境教學法	小五
	39. 詢問的溝通能力	信息差活動	小五
	40. 請求和交際能力	功能法	小五

	41. 快餐店買食物	功能法	小四及小五
	42. 借東西的交際能力	語境練習	小六
	43. 道別，邀請，建議的交際能力	功能教學法	小六
	44. 邀約的交際能力	功能法	小學，沒有說明年級
	45. 打招呼和自我介紹	功能法	小學，沒有說明年級
	46. 詢問	功能法	小學，沒有說明年級
	47. 掌握點菜的功能	分組活動	中一
	48. 見面問好的交際能力	功能法	中一
	49. 交際能力	聽後說話活動	中一
	50. 購物的交際能力	功能法	中一
	51. 比較曾學過與未學過普通話學生的交際能力	功能法	中一
	52. 交際能力	信息差活動	中一
	53. 交際能力	功能法	中一
	54. 學習興趣及交際能力	主題說話活動	中一
	55. 交際能力和學習興趣	分組活動	中一
	56. 問路能力	提問技巧	中二
	57. 交際能力	直接教學法	中二
興趣	58. 學習興趣	功能法	小一
	59. 說普通話的興趣	生活化題材	小二
	60. 愛聽的興趣及敢說的地步	活動及練習	小學，沒有說明年級
	61. 提高說話動機	角色扮演	中一
	62. 學習興趣和交際能力	小老師活動	中二
	63. 比傳統課堂教學更能提高學習興趣	功能法	中二
	64. 提高學習興趣	功能法為主比語音知識為主	中二
	65. 提高說話興趣	小組協作教學	Co-operative learning
	66. 興趣	角色扮演	中一及中二
	67. 學習興趣和主動學習的動機	傳媒節目	中學，沒有說明年級

從以上的行動研究題目中，大部分學員要針對的是：要解決學生的聽說能力，這是與普通話科小學和中學課程綱要有關。由香港課程發展議會編訂的普通話科小學和中學課程綱要（1997），學習的總目標都是：

1. 培養聆聽、說話、朗讀等語言能力，以及自學能力。
2. 增進與本科有關的語言知識，以及對中國文化的認識。
3. 提高對本科的學習興趣，培養良好的學習態度和習慣。

由於普通話科在香港是一個語言的科目，所以聽、說和交際溝通的能力是教學的重點。從題目中，看到學員嘗試以所學過的語言教學理論，例如：功能法、情境教學法、信息差原理或小組協作教學法，來解決學生學習問題，說明教師能掌握以行動研究解決教學困難的精神。

七・結論

1. 普通話教師可以做研究

從學員的問卷中，無論中小學組普通話教師，他們在修讀在職培訓課程前，大部分都表示：不認識甚麼是行動研究，說明了以前的職前的培訓課程沒有介紹行動研究。從起初的不認識到後來表示對做行動研究有信心，而且每一位修讀的老師都能完成行動研究及寫成研究報告，說明語言教師有做研究的能力。相信這不限於普通話老師，任何一位老師，經指導後都會有進行研究

的能力。同時，如果教師明白行動研究的過程和特點，相信也會提高老師對做研究的興趣。

2. 行動研究提高教師的專業地位

以前老師只重視看教材或教學的參考資料，很少會留意甚麼研究報告。修讀在職培訓課程後，老師學會看研究報告，甚至有把自己的行動研究報告在雜誌或教育學報上發表。能公開發表說明老師對自己的行動研究有信心，把自己的研究成果向他人介紹，讓公眾接受，這是一個專業人士慣常的表現。所以，老師藉學習做行動研究提高了教師的專業地位。

3. 行動研究培養老師專業探究的能力

過去許多老師只依賴教材，以為完成課本內容，符合課程要求便是盡責了當。在職培訓課程中，無論是行動研究理論課或是小組課，都強調教師先要反思，從發現學生的學習問題為起點，然後盡量尋求方法解決困難。學員要經歷教學概念的轉變：以解決學生的問題為主要任務，而不是以教完所有課文為了事。在學員曾做過的行動研究題目中，看到學員經過反思後，提出學生許多學習的問題，並能引用一些語言專家學者的理論或方法，嘗試解決問題。在反思及解決困難的過程中，培養教師有獨立的和專業的探究精神。

4. 行動研究能改善教學的素質

教學的內容和教學方法是否適合生的需要和程度？很少人做過這樣的研究。教科書的編寫者也不會做過研究才撰寫教科書。這樣，教師如果依書直說，可能看不到學生真正的需要，於是便往往吃力不討好。行動研究強調教師反思，針對學生的真正情況，所以教師要解決的問題，便是學生真正的困難，而且是校本或學生為本的情況。從學員的行動研究範疇中，可以看到學生學習普通話的問題是：不同場合的交際能力，說普通話的信心，分辨聲調或學習某些容易混淆的聲母或韻母等，這些都是學生真正的弱點。教師的教學如能針對學生的需要，就如箭對正了靶，這樣才是真正幫助學生解決學習困難。因此，行動研究可以提高教與學的素質。

八・建議

1. 師資培訓課程加入行動研究

任何師資培訓課程，包括職前和在職培訓課程，都應培養老師做行動研究。二十一世紀講求素質教育，老師先要提高自己的素質，不能只依賴教師參考資料。教師要找出學生學習的難點，然後對症下藥，這樣才能改善教與學的效果。行動研究培養教師的反思能力，解決教學問題，使教師成為教育改革的主人翁，所以每一位老師，不論是準老師或是在職老師，都應掌握如何做行動研究。

2. 出版老師的行動研究報告

從一九九五年開始，香港教育學院小學普通話在職培訓課程要求學員寫行動研究報告，每年有80至100份報告左右。九七年開辦中學組課程，每年約有60至80份學員行動研究報告。其中，有許多是很有價值和很有啟發性的，如果能有地方讓學員發表成果，這樣既可達交流之用，又可以讓教育界人士參考。國外有教育行動研究(Educational Action Research)的專門雜誌，其中有大學教授的報告，也有學校老師教學的研究。因此，香港教育學院應設一些園地，讓老師也可發表他們行動研究的成果。

3. 辦交流和分享會

教育機構應定期舉辦讓老師交流行動研究的分享會，讓大家把自己的嘗試向他人介紹。雖然行動研究是校本的，但學習語言的某些困難也會是香港一般學生會遇到的問題。教育機構安排機會讓老師分享和推介經驗，就等如肯定老師的研究成果，換言之，也是提高了老師的專業地位。老師知道有機會或需要向其他人報告自己的行動研究，一定會更用心做研究。交流或分享會間接助長了教師的專業成長。

4. 鼓勵專家和老師合作做行動研究

老師是前線工作者，有實際的經驗，有直接的觀察，但卻不習慣理論的探討，又或沒有時間翻查文獻，所以，最好有大專院校的導師或其他專業人士與老師合作。一同在學校進行行動研究，便可以各取所長，互補所短。

5. 減少教師工作量

從教師學前問卷中，大部分老師都不抗拒做研究，而且對研究有興趣，但由於教學節數太多，所以沒有時間做研究。如果肯定行動研究這種由下而上的教育改革值得推行的話，那就應提供時間和空間，讓老師有餘暇做行動研究。教師藉行動研究得到專業發展，自然可以

1 本專門刊載行動研究的英文定期刊物

解決自身教學的問題，這樣對教育當局推行教改也有好處。

九、研究限制

本研究本身也是一個行動研究，旨在結合課堂教學作研究。由於取樣不多，研究設計並不嚴密，所以不能推廣至本港所有的普通話老師。希望日後能改善研究方法，作較大型的研究。

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附錄一

學前問卷調查

1. 你認為教師應該做研究嗎？
   □ 應該　原因：
   □ 不應該 原因：

2. 你認為教師可以做研究嗎？
   □ 可以　原因：
   □ 不可以 原因：

3. 你有沒有參與研究的工作？
   □ 有　□ 沒有
   如有，請註明：

4. 你有沒有興趣參與研究的工作？
   □ 有　□ 沒有
   如有，請註明是哪一方面：
   如沒有，請說明原因：

5. 你知道甚麼是行動研究嗎？
   □ 知道　□ 不知道
   如答知道，請說明你在哪裏認識行動研究？

6. 請你寫出行動研究的定義：

附錄二

中學組學員修讀後問卷

題號	內容	同意	不同意
1	對行動研究有信心		
2	看其他行動研究報告時能了解		
3	了解行動研究的流程		
4	會訂研究題目		
5	知道如何搜集文獻		
6	會撰寫研究目的		
7	會撰寫待答問題		
8	會撰寫研究假設		
9	會決定研究設計		
10	會決定研究樣本		
11	會選擇研究方法		
12	會選擇研究工具		
13	會撰寫研究結果		
14	會撰寫摘要		

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(Received: 12.6.01, accepted 24.7.01, revised 22.9.01)

香港小學常識科跨學科課程研究：理念與實踐

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二零零零年，香港課程發展議會發表教育改革諮詢文件，重申跨學科課程對於學童在整全性知識發展方面的作用。事實上，小學常識科作為一個跨學科課程已推行了五年。教師對於這種課程的理念、認識及實踐，對課程改革的進一步發展，實在有其參考值。本文以問卷調查為工具，用定量分析研究教師對跨學科課程的認知程度及實施情況，以探討學科統整改革的正確路向。

A Study of the Hong Kong Primary General Studies As An Integrated Curriculum: Theory and Practice

In 2000, the Hong Kong Curriculum Development Council published the consultation document on educational reform, re-affirming the role played by integrated curriculum in the holistic development of the pupils. In fact, General Studies, as an integrated curriculum, has been implemented for five years. Teachers' perception, knowledge, and practice of such integrated curriculum would definitely have referential and revelatory values for the further development in curriculum. This paper adopts a quantitative approach with the use of questionnaire survey as an instrument to analyse teachers' perception, knowledge, and practice of integrated curriculum for the sake of charting the proper course for its future development.

一・引言

1. 跨學科課程及常識科的定義

在二〇〇〇年發佈的香港教育制度改革建議文件中，學校本位的「整合性學習」課程設計成為改革的重要議題。其目的在透過統整教學內容和學生經驗，將課程從以往的科本學習重新設計為一個科際整合課程，使學生能理解和聯繫那些各自分立的學科知識。雖然本港中小學早已有科際整合課程實施的經驗，例如一九九六年推行的小學常識科，便是整合了社會、科學及健康教育三科成一個科際整合課程。但是，那些長久習於分科授課的學校及教師是否真的了解甚麼是整合課程而於教授常識科時知道怎樣實行科際整合教學？要檢視常識科教師是否理解科際整合教學，先要了解科際課程的定義及其教學的特點。

科際整合課程有很多不同的別名，包括統整課程（integrated curriculum）、科際整合教學（interdisciplinary teaching）、主題教學（thematic teaching）及整合教學（synergistic teaching）等等。雖然這些用語存在著若干程度的概念分歧，基本上科際整合教學仍有其核心意義。舉例而言，美國學者Humphreys (Humphreys, Post & Ellis, 1981) 為科際課程提出了一基本的定義：「一個統整的學習是指：兒童能廣泛地探索那些與其生活環境相關的不同學科的知識 (p.1)」。Tchudi & Lafer (1996) 把科際整合教學界定為：「貫穿多個學科界線，將課程內容及概念彙整成一有意義的主題。」根據Good (1973) 的主張，統整課程的組織應穿越學科的界限，而專注廣泛的生活問題或廣闊的學習領域。Jacobs (1989) 認為科際教學是一種知識或課程觀，有意義地串連不同學科的基本概念及探究方式以檢視核心主題、議題、話題或經驗。總結上述見解，不同的統合課程的共有特色為：把學習與抽象的學科知識及現實的經驗世界聯結，並強調探究學習、親身體驗和現實世界的聯繫。既然不同的界定均具有以上的共同趨向，本文章將會交替使用「科際整合教學」及「統整課程」兩個名稱。

香港小學常識科是把小學社會科、科學科及健康教

育科綜合而成，內容是把三科連繫成四個主要的範疇，包括「健康的生活」、「生活環境」、「自然世界」及「科學與科技」。常識科把原來的三個分立科目所強調的知識、技能與態度有系統地結合起來，使兒童對事物認識得更全面。據此，常識科被視為跨學科課程的一個典範，香港課程發展議會編訂的《小學常識科課程綱要》(1997) 顯現了常識科作為統整課程的特色（表一）。

表一：常識科作為科際整合課程的特點

節錄自《常識科課程綱要》(1997)	節錄自文獻有關科際課程的特色
香港小學常識科課程.....把小學社會科、科學科和健康教育科綜合而編訂的。本課程被列為小學共同核心課程中的一科，目的是使兒童在小學教育課程中，接受全面的教育 (p.7)。	綜合或整全的學習 組合不同的學科
本課程把社會科、科學科和健康教育科中相關的課題有系統地綜合起來。這樣，兒童不但能省去重覆學習各科同類課題的時間，更可透過不同角度去學習，對事物認識得更全面（p.8）。	集中於主題或議題的研習 從統整的觀點檢視議題
本科的精神在於引導兒童認識自己及生活環境.....由於他們能將科目內容隨時應用於現實生活中，並學會從生活中得到的經驗去解決困難，他們自然對學習產生興趣(p.8)。	集中於真實世界中所關注的事物 高層次思維及問題解決的能力
教師可以將某單元內的綱目重新組織，並將綱目部份內容按情況滲透於其他單元內..... 在可能的情況下教師亦可把不同單元的內容重新組合，成為一個主題 (p.13)。	主題導向

資料來源：Good (1973)；Humphreys (1981)；Jacobs (1989)；Tchudi & Lafer (1996)；香港課程發展議會(1997)

總結而言，常識科課程所強調的原則與課程統整或科際整合課程界定的幾個重點相同，包括學科的組合、概念的串連或學科知識與現實世界的聯繫，以主題或相關議題來組織學習，及強調真切性和探究性的學習活動等等。常識科旨在以主題有系統地組合社會科、科學科及健康教育科中的相關概念及技能，使教學與現實生活連結起來；其次，常識科著重學生為中心的啟發式教學，目的在促進學生自發的透過積極學習參與活動，引起學生的學習興趣及鼓勵他們從多角度思考問題（課程發展議會，1997）。

2. 統整課程的研究 - 文獻回顧

「科際整合教學」是當代教育改革的重要課題，有關這方面的論述及研究亦逐漸增加。Lake（1994）就這方面的研究作出一綜合檢視，發現課程統整的研究大致可分為三大類：（i）科際整合教學的描述；（ii）教師對課程統整的意見調查及（iii）比較研究。此外，Lake以內容知識、態度及實踐三個綱領檢討課程統整的效度，結果顯示要有效實施科際整合教學，教師必需選擇合適的主題，運用多元化的教材，著重探究學習，調整教學時間表及設計可反映學生表現的持續評核工具。就統整課程的成效，Vars (1991) 發現經歷過統整課程學習的學生於標準測試中較分科學習的學生有更理想的表現。其實，支持統整課程教學的理念不單只在外國社會流行，近年中國國內多個省政府亦致力於發展統整課程。河北省教育研究中心 (Hubei Education Research Centre)在一個有關學生學習成果的比較研究顯示，循統整課程學習的學生較接受分科教學的學生有較佳的學業成績。此外，教師如擁有良好科目知識、能促進整全學習及與同事在工作上合作良好，均可以提升科目統整的效能。陳曉萍及施憶(1998) 自1992年起在深圳中小學就學科統整課程的效用所進行的研究亦確認了教師的

重要性。同時，他們亦探討自1992年至1995年間接受了統整學習的學生的學業成績，結果發現這批學生的學業成績有上升的趨勢。然而，Marsh (1993) 卻認為有關課程統整效果的證據並未確立。Venville, Wallace, Rennie & Malone (1998) 在十六間學校進行了研究，他們懷疑統整課程的效用，並提出統整課程其實並未改善學習表現。他們發現教師並不認同那些似乎是勉強的整合，以及表面化的學科聯繫。

不少學者的研究也提出教師在跨學科課堂中是扮演著重要的角色。Mason (1996) 認為優質教學理念的成功，有賴教師在課堂上的教學實踐。因此，跨學科教學需要教師有足夠的知識及能力去設計具有意義的統整學習模式。Huntley (1998) 認為統整課程的成功，其中最重要的因素是教師能對統整教學有正確的理解，組合合適的教學模式及課程材料，以及運用多元化的教學資源。Sprague, Pennell & Sulzberger (1998) 於約克郡進行了關於課程統整實踐的個案研究。他們發現跨學科課程基本上獲得中學教師的支持，然而很少教師曾受過科際整合教學設計及實施的正統訓練。該研究並指出實踐課程統整的若干有利因素，包括長期實施的承諾、素質教學、對統整教學的理解與有關的專業知識，以及校方與政府的支持等。Simanu-Klutz (1998) 總結了教師的重要角色，他認為：「採用統整課程意味著教師、教育行政者、家長及學校職員等都須經歷重大的轉變。這些轉變為教師帶來沉重的負擔，除了需要重新設計題材及教學策略外，還需要擴闊他們對主題的認識、利用以往不常用的教學技巧、改變教學態度..... (p.4)。總括而言，二十世紀九十年代期間，統整教育在澳洲、美國、英國及香港等地均得到廣泛的支持。例子包括美國的初中數學及科學教育統整、尼日利亞的中學社會科學課程中的環境教育及國內的中小學科學統整等。很明顯，各地統整課程的實施，既有其可取之處，亦面對不同程度的困難。

3. 常識科 — 科際整合教學在香港的例子

香港的課程發展長久以來都是由上而下的行政指令的產品。根據Morris (1990)的說法，課程發展有三個階段：計劃或開始階段、執行階段及落實階段。期間，政府均會對課程的性質及種類進行實質的管制。香港教育署及課程發展議會是負起課程發展工作的兩個政府部門，專職發展及設計本港的學校課程。課程在設計完成後，便會在中央的支援下執行；這些支援包括科目資源中心、在職培訓班及課室資源的提供等。此外，不少在海外受歡迎的創新經驗也會被引入到本地的學校系統，例如1981年在小學及小學學前教育實施的活動教學、1988年引入的校本課程計劃等。

自1973年以來，綜合學科已開始於香港的學校系統中實施及推廣。根據政府的資料，大約98%的中學為中一及中二學生提供了綜合科學一科。又自1975年起，組合了地理科、歷史科及經濟與公共事務科的社會教育科開始在中學實施。1990年教統會第四號報告書建議不同科目下的相關學習領域應該被整合起來，與此相應，統整三個小學科目(社會科、科學科及健康教育科)的常識科便發展起來。隨後常識科作為科際整合課程的價值在本地獲取了廣泛的關注，與這方面的教學及課程設計相關的研究便相繼出現。例如在一個實施統整課程的校本計劃個案研究中，Wong 便具體地描述主題教學的設計及實施，可以如何由不同學科的教師合作、發展及教授 (Wong, 1995a, 1995b)。但是，Wong的計劃於科目統整之外還結合了其他教育理念，包括校本文化中的組織領導能力、腦力學習 (brain-based learning)、校本課程中的團隊合作等。除了描述整個計劃的設計及實施過程外，Wong的文章還指出教師及學生對統整課程的正面反應。有關常識科的研究還包括常識科教師的態度調查 (Lo et al., 1996; Lo and Tung, 1998) 及教師對常識科的教學效能的研究 (Cheng et al., 1997; So et al., 1998a, 1998b)。這些研究利用問卷調查，探討教師對常識科教學的意見及其所面對的困難，其中比較重要的結論包括：教師對課程中若干課題的教學缺乏信心、缺乏教授不同學科知識的準備、學校時間表欠缺彈性及教學進度緊迫等項目。

為了滿足二十一世紀學生的需求，香港教統會於2000年提出教育改革方案。就小學而言，有關當局鼓勵校方為學生作出靈活的學習時間編排，推行專題研習的學習方法，讓學生參與以學生為中心的探究及解難活動，從而培養高層次的思維訓練。另外，2000年教育改革建議諮詢文件中提出學習領域的課程架構，以取代傳統的科目分界，這八個學習領域包括體育教育、藝術教育、個人、社會及人文教育、科技教育、科學教育、數學教育、英國語文教育及中國語文教育。建構綜合的學習領域是為了促進跨學科合作，推動學生獲致均衡的全人教育(課程發展議會，2000)。常識科既為一跨學科的課程，並已實行了五年的時間，教師對教授常識科的看法及實施科際整合教學時的經驗對課程改革的執行及成效實有借鏡的價值，此亦為本研究計劃的基本理念所在。

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二・研究背景、目的及方法

基於上述不同學者的研究所得，跨學科課程在提升教與學的效能方面，實有其正面的價值。但是，教師在推行跨學科課程時所面對的問題亦不容忽視。同時，教師對跨學科課程的認知、理念和態度，也是影響課程改革的重要因素。為了研究教師在認知、理念和實踐方面的問題，並幫助教師探討跨學科課程發展的路向，本研究小組向香港教育學院申請了「特別計劃撥款 (Special Project Grant)，以推行一項名為「跨學科(常識科)課程主題教學——從理論到實踐」的活動。該項活動計劃其中一部份是以問卷調查方法，於活動計劃進行前研究參與者(小學常識科教師) 對跨學科課程教學的見解、認識及其在課堂上的施教實況，以便於活動計劃結束後作比較，並對整次活動計劃的實效作評估。問卷調查的對象是參與是次計劃的五間學校的教師，問卷於二零零零年十二月十六日在教育學院內舉行的研討會及工作坊(計劃的第一項活動)中派發予當天參與的教師，並於其後分別派發予該五間學校的其他教師，收回的問卷合共九十二份，回收率達百份之八十。雖然這五間學校的回應並不能代表全港小學教師對常識科的認知及於教學實施方面的情況，然而調查所得資料足以顯示一般常識科教師在教學理念和實踐方面所存在的問題，並為將來進一步的深入質性研究作出啟示。

問卷內容可分為三部份：第一部份是教師對跨學科課程教學的意見。內容可按調查目的再細分為兩組：i) 1-14 題調查參與者對跨學科課程教學的認識 (其中 1-8 題屬於理論層面，9-14 題屬於實踐層面)；ii) 15-26 題調查參與者認為實踐跨學科課程教學可能面對的困難 (其中 15-18 題屬於認知或觀念層次上的困難，19-26 題屬於實踐上、技術層次上的困難)。第二部份是教學實況，旨在調查參與者在現時的教學上有否實踐跨學科教學的理念。第三部份是個人資料分析，集中比較不同學歷 (已受訓和未受訓) 的教師對各項問題的回應。

三・調查數據分析

整體而言，在問卷第一部份教師對跨學科課程的教學意見裏 (詳見附件 I)，回應者對跨學科課程的基本概念與理論都有一定的了解，大部份的被訪教師 (71.4%) 都知道跨學科課程有助學生從不同角度認識同一個問題；65.9% 教師知道跨學科課程的教學是要求學生作全方位的學習。但是，回應者當中有 65.2% 誤會跨學科課程教學是指不同的學科同時教授類似或相關的課題，亦有 63% 教師明白實踐跨學科課程教學能解決科目界限的制肘，顯示出前後兩者存在明顯的矛盾。事實上，若果教師在不同學科同時教授類似或相關的課題時，未能以科際統整的方法加以重構，仍然會是流於分科教學。此外，亦有31.1%的教師誤解跨學科課程的教學內容是難免重覆；26.3% 的教師誤解在跨學科課程教學中，知識的學習較技能與態度的培養更重要。正確來說，跨學科課程應可避免重覆，而學生學會如何學習及培養正確的態度在一定程度上比學習的內容為重要。可見教師對跨學科課程的理念仍有些模糊之處。至於在實踐跨學科課程理念上，被訪教師的意見較為一致；大部份 (87.9%)教師都認為學生應參與社區活動，以增加他(她)們對日常生活的認識；同時 85.9%的受訪教師都認同跨學科課程設計應利用不同的教學策略及活動來互相配合。但調查亦發現一半 (53.3%) 教師誤以為在實踐跨學科課程時是需要配合固定的上課時間。

在實踐跨學科課程教學上，大部份的教師都在認知層面上意識到某些困難，例如有73.4%的教師相信要實踐跨學科課程教學，就必需要有足夠的教師培訓。另外，有71.1%的教師認為在實踐跨學科課程教學時難以擺脫傳統的教學觀念；亦有61.1%的教師對其中某些主題缺乏足夠知識及教學經驗。同時，大部份教師同意在實踐跨學科課程教學上有技術上的困難，例如85.6% 教師認為繁忙的教學及行政工作，令他(她)們難以兼顧新的教學方法；有 81.1% 的教師認為在教材製作上遇到困難。除此之外，有72.4% 教師認為校外 (如教育署和師資培訓機構) 的支援並不足夠。

在問卷第二部份教師教學實況方面 (參閱附件 I)，一半以上的教師都未能達到跨學科教學的要求，其中只有三方面表現較佳，第一是有55.8% 的教師經常會利用不同的教學活動，如訪問、分組活動及角色扮演等協助教學；第二是54.7% 的教師時常會提醒同學參閱課外讀物，並提供合適的書目；第三是75.5% 的教師經常會給予學生足夠的時間去完成活動和作業。相對而言，在策劃戶外活動給學生參與、提供機會給學生家長和社團參與學校活動，及利用概念圖來教學三方面，教師的回應較為負面。這與第一部份中大部份 (84.8%)教師都同意「跨學科教學需要學校、教師及家長的良好溝通」及「應利用課室外的資源來協助教學」的理念互相矛盾。實際上根據問卷資料分析，只有少數 (14%) 的教師經常組織或提供機會給學生家長和社團參與學校活動，亦只有 16.3% 的教師常常會把各單元重新組織來教授，而表示會用概念圖來教學及經常更新教材的教師平均佔受訪者

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人數亦不足二成（分別為17.6%及18.6%）。這些現象顯示跨學科課程的理念在教學實況中並未能完全落實和推行。

問卷的第三部份是個人資料分析（參閱附件I）。在收回的九十二份問卷中，第三部份有關「個人資料」的有效問卷合共八十六份，其中持有教育文憑的有五十一人；沒有教育文憑的（包括只有大專文憑、其他大學學位及碩士或博士學位的）共三十五人。本文會集中比較教育文憑教師與非教育文憑教師的問卷調查結果（參閱附件II及III），以分析師資訓練對於推行跨學科課程的影響。

在問卷的第一部份中，關於教師對跨學科教學的基本概念與理論層面的認識（1-8題）方面，教育文憑教師與非教育文憑教師的差距基本上不大，其中只有一項有顯著的分別 - 很多教育文憑教師（78.8%）誤解跨學科課程教學是指不同的學科同時教授類似或相關的課題，非教育文憑教師誤解此點的比例則較少（只有50%）。在實踐跨學科課程的理念上（9-14題），教育文憑教師的認知程度普遍較佳，除了誤會跨學科課程教學需要配合固定的上課時間（第14題）的比例稍多於非文憑教師外，在其餘五題中，大部份人都能正確地回答。如有94%教育文憑教師知道學生應參與社區活動，以增加他們對日常生活的認識；反觀非文憑教師只有78.4%認同此點。而且有較多的非文憑教師不同意跨學科課程教學需要學校、教師及家長之間的良好溝通，及應利用課室外的資源來協助教學，前後兩者各佔9.1%。相反地，錯誤回答這兩題的教育文憑教師只有2%及0%。

在實踐跨學科課程教學於認知層面上的困難方面（15-18題），兩組不同教師之間只有一項較大的分歧 - 認同要實踐跨學科課程教學，教師需要擺脫傳統的教學觀念的教育文憑教師（77.1%）比非文憑教師多出約10%。在實踐跨學科課程教學上的技術性困難方面（19-26題），教育文憑教師認同各項困難的百分比都較非文憑教師為高，例如有88.2%教育文憑教師認為教師在教具及教材製作上出現困難，非文憑教師中作相同回應的只有70.6%。又如有49%教育文憑教師認為課堂上的活動所造成的噪音，會阻礙學生的學習，而只有22.8%非文憑教師認同這點。基本上，教育文憑教師及非文憑教師都在推行跨學科課程時面對不少困難，亦感到技術及資源上的支援不足。

第二部份教學實況方面，非文憑教師的回應平均較為正面，例如有74.3%非文憑教師常常會給學生足夠的時間去完成活動和作業，只有65.2%教育文憑教師做到這點。又如有25.8%非文憑教師常常會提供機會給學生家長和社團參與學校活動，而只有2%文憑教師達此要求。其餘各種教學方法及技巧基本上均以非文憑教師在實踐方面的經常性稍高。總結教育文憑教師與非教育文憑教師的調查結果比較，兩者在對理念的理解上分別不大。平均而言，是教育文憑教師表現稍佳。惟於教學實踐方面，已受訓的（教育文憑）教師所面對的困難不比未受訓的教師少。整体而言，兩組教師在透過不同活動去實踐跨學科課程的頻率都是偏低，充份反映出理論與實踐、認知與實行之間的歧異性。

四・總結及建議

總括而言，參與調查的教師對跨學科課程教學的理念有一定程度的認識。然而，部份題目卻顯示出他們觀念上的不一致，例如雖有超過六成人知道實踐跨學科教學能解決科目界限的制肘，同時也有超過六成人誤會跨學科教學是指不同的學科同時教授相關的課題，而且只有三成人知道教學內容重覆不是跨學科教學的缺點。又例如有八成多教師都認同跨學科教學應利用課室外的資源，這明顯與只有兩成多教師不同意固定的上課時間相矛盾。由此觀之，教師對跨學科教學的認識只達到表面的層次。而且，教師對跨學科課程教學的認識與教學實況也明顯不一致，顯示出教師雖大致理解跨學科教學，卻沒有付諸實行，例如大部份教師都同意跨學科教學需要家長的合作，但現實中，提供機會給家長參與學校活動的頻率卻是諸項中最少的。

值得注意的是，在跨學科教學的實際情況中，已受師資培訓的教師並非自然地比較未受師資培訓的教師更為積極，前者所面對的問題亦並非比後者為少。此處可反映兩個重要問題：第一，已受訓的教育文憑教師在認知或理念層面上或許稍勝，但未必一定會將他（她）們的知識或理論付諸實行。很多時教師專業發展的缺乏、有關教育機構的支援不足、學校協作文化薄弱、領導階層的教育取向、時間及資源的限制等因素都可能會影響整體課程的設計和推行。第二，香港的教師培訓課程中，關於跨學科（常識科）課程的理論和實踐方面，皆有不足之處。以香港教育學院的小學教育課程為例，整體內容及方向偏重於一般教育理論及方法，其中涉及跨學科課程的專門知識甚少，更遑論不同學科基礎知識的互相關聯及統整。正如Brodeur (1998)指出，一般性的教學法訓練並不能給予職前教師統整教學的經驗。就算是教育學院的常識科課程本身，關於常識科教學法的單元，授課時間亦只有三十小時。然而其中內容所涉及的範圍卻相當廣泛，學生並沒有足夠時間去深入了解和掌握跨學科課程教學的理論及概念。就教學實習而言，一般常識科學

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生在兩年教學實習期內只得六至十二週 (每週五教節)的課室教學經驗，能夠參與跨學科課程統整的機會極少。

為了幫助教師有效地推行常識科跨學科課程以配合校本課程改革的發展，本小組於分析上述研究結果後，初步提出下列的改善建議：

i) 各大專院校及教育學院應增強職前或在職教師於跨學科課程方面的理論和實踐，在課時、內容、評核以至實習等各範疇都要配合校本課程改革，特別是跨學科課程統整的實際需要。

ii) 教育署應加強對校本課程發展的支援工作，輔導教師在跨學科課程方面的設計和調適。教育署亦可與大專院校合作，籌辦跨學科課程的研討會及工作坊，促進院校之間的交流，以提升教師的專業知識和能力。

iii) 各學校可與大學合作進行校本跨學科課程的行動研究，以診斷問題，探討可行的方案，從行動中建構知識，藉反思求不斷改善 (Elliott, 1998, pp.178-188)。

iv) 要改革課程，必先要改變學校的文化。協作文化的建立是教師專業發展的一個重要條件 (Hargreaves, 1995, pp.186-195)。特別是在跨學科課程的推行方面，其中成敗關鍵主要在乎教師是否能夠拋棄傳統學科專業的規範，共同協作研究、設計教案及製造教材。

v) 要建立協作文化，除了要教師自覺地改變其價值觀外，當然不能缺少校長作為改革媒介力量 (change agent)的領導角色 (Fullan, 1991, pp.153-158)。就香港本土情況而言，校長可考慮調動財政資源，僱用教學助理去減輕教師於非教學方面的工作量，以便他(她)們騰出時間共同協作或進行行動研究。除了人力及資源外，校長作為課程領袖，應領導跨學科課程發展小組，鼓勵不同科目的教師共同合作和研究，探討一個適合學校需要的統整模式。更重要的是，校長必須授權 (empower)教師進行校本課程改革，給予他(她)們較大的自主空間參與討論及決策 (Hargreaves,1995,pp.68-69)，否則各教師只會在自己的專業範圍內各自為戰，有能力去進行跨學科課程發展者亦未必可以發揮其所長。

vi) 其實上述的協作文化，應可以推而廣之。同一辦學團體或同一地區內的學校，可建立協作的網絡，鼓勵教師就推行跨學科課程方面的經驗和心得作正式或非正式的交流及分享。各網絡學校亦可就某些跨學科課程的設計方案進行試驗，經同儕評鑑後，加以改良及推廣。

vii) 另外，學校應積極考慮課程發展議會(2000)在有關教育改革諮詢文件的建議，以「塊狀時間表」(block schedule)代替傳統分科分時的模式。這種「塊狀時間表」可以創造更靈活的課時空間，方便跨學科課程活動的安排 (Brodeur, 1998, p.40; Burke, 1999, p.xvii)。當然，要推行這種靈活的學習時間表，必須諮詢教師及家長的意見，彼此之間要作出協調適應，方能增強其認受性及可行性。

viii) 多年來，教科書一直在課程的實施方面扮演重要的角色。更有學者(Shaver, Davis & Hepburn, 1979)的研究顯示，教科書事實上是教學的重要工具(pp. 150-153)。近年來，香港的常識科教科書頗能注意到課題的統整，亦能提供網上資源幫助教師及學生從不同角度認識和探討問題。但是，在若干課題或學習範圍之間的互相聯繫(inter-connectedness)方面仍然比較薄弱，跨科統整活動的建議甚少。各出版商應與大專院校合作，研究及發展不同模式的跨學科課程資料補充，透過電腦網絡向教育界同工推廣，以配合課程改革的需要。

ix) 要有效地推行跨學科課程，教師必須打破傳統教科書主導的思維，鼓勵學生及同工多些利用不同社區和多媒體資源，從多角度去探究問題。他(她)們可與其他文化及教育團體合作，拓展教室以外的跨學科課程活動。同時，教師亦可引導學生利用電腦的虛擬互動學習活動，打破時間和空間的隔閡，按照自己的能力和興趣，進行跨學科課程的全方位學習 (Zola & Ioannidou, 2000, pp.142-145)。

x) 家長的支持亦是推行跨學科課程及全方位學習活動的重要因素。校長及教師可通過家長教師會鼓勵家長參與設計、組織及推行跨學科課程的活動 (Marsh & Willis,1999,pp.201-204)。學校的電腦網頁上應設立「家長角」，方便家長與校方溝通聯繫，藉以提高家長對跨學科課程活動的興趣和參與。家長對跨學科課程的了解和支持，可使這種課程增強它在家庭教育中延展性。

xi) 無庸置疑，傳統的考試測驗模式，比較注重以標準化的答案去量度學生的學習能力，並不能配合跨學科課程活動的評鑑需要。在這一方面，校長及教師可採用各種「真切性評估 (authentic assessment)的學習課業 (如學習文件檔、專題研習報告等)，以引導學生認識真實生活中的經驗和問題，培養各種學習技能，配合不同學習目標的需要，訓練多元智能，製造空間給予跨科目課程的活動，並鼓勵學生通過「同儕互評」積極參與整個評核的過程 (James,1998, pp.115-119)。

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綜合上述，跨學科課程的推行，實有賴教育署、大專院校、社區、校長、教師及家長的合作，共同組織「學習的社群」(learning community) (Joyce, Calhoun & Hopkins, 1999, pp.1-2) 以改變學校的工作文化，提升教師的專業能力，促進同儕協作，利用社區資源，推動家長的參與，靈活調配各種學校資源，改革評核制度及爭取出版界的支援。只有這種協同作用 (synergy) 才能減少教師在推行跨學科課程活動時所面對的困難，使各種資源更有效地互相配合和運用，並為校本跨學科發展課程改革提供更大的發展空間。

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(Received: 31.5.01, accepted 9.9.01, revised: 14.9.01)

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附件 I

調查數據

第一部份: 對跨學科課程的教學意見			
	(極)不同意	中立	(極)同意
1. 跨學科課程教學能加強學習的整全性。	3.30%	34.10%	62.60%
2. 跨學科課程教學要求學生作全方位的學習。	6.60%	27.50%	65.90%
3. 在跨學科課程教學中，知識的學習較技能與態度的學習更重要。	37.40%	36.30%	26.30%
4. 跨學科課程教學是指不同的學科同時教授類似或相關的課題。	12.00%	22.80%	65.20%
5. 跨學科課程教學的缺點是教學內容難免重複。	30.00%	38.90%	31.10%
6. 常識科作為跨學科課程不宜再把其他科目的課程參進其中。	49.40%	30.80%	19.80%
7. 跨學科課程教學有助學生從不同角度認識同一個問題。	7.70%	20.90%	71.40%
8. 實踐跨學科課程教學能解決科目界限的制肘。	9.80%	27.20%	63.00%
9. 教師應設計/進行更多學生有興趣的活動。	5.40%	17.40%	77.20%
10. 跨學科課程教學需要學校、教師及家長之間的良好溝通。	2.20%	13.00%	84.80%
11. 跨學科課程教學應利用課室外的資源來協助教學。	3.30%	11.90%	84.80%
12. 跨學科課程設計應利用不同的教學策略及活動教學來配合。	1.10%	13.00%	85.90%
13. 學生應參與社區活動，以增加他們對日常生活的認識。	2.20%	9.90%	87.90%
14. 跨學科課程教學需要配合固定的上課時間。	22.30%	24.40%	53.30%
15. 要實踐跨學科課程教學，教師需要足夠的培訓。	4.40%	22.20%	73.40%
16. 實踐跨學科課程教學有困難，因為教師對其理念及缺乏深入的認識。	8.90%	38.90%	52.20%
17. 實踐跨學科課程教學有困難，因為教師對其中某些主題缺乏足夠知識及教學經驗。	8.90%	30.00%	61.10%
18. 實踐跨學科課程教學有困難，因為教師難以擺脫傳統的教學觀念。	8.90%	20.00%	71.10%
19. 教師在教具及教材製作上出現困難。	2.20%	16.70%	81.10%
20. 繁忙的教學及行政工作，令教師難以兼顧新的教學方法。	4.40%	10.00%	85.60%
21. 教師之間在課程設計及教學上的合作與協調出現困難。	8.90%	21.10%	70.00%
22. 課程建議的戶外活動，會引起學生的安全問題。	18.90%	28.90%	52.20%
23. 課堂上的活動所造成的噪音，會阻礙學生的學習。	26.40%	35.60%	38.00%
24. 校外的支援，如教育署、課程發展處和師資培訓機構，有所不足。	4.60%	23.00%	72.40%
25. 校方對科程改革未有提供足夠的支援。	11.50%	27.60%	60.90%
26. 教學資源不足，如教科書、參考書、教具等。	5.80%	24.10%	70.10%

第二部份: 教學實況			
	從不	間中	常常
1. 我會設計教學策略(例如資料蒐集和個案研究)去引導學生探究日常生活中的問題。	10.50%	65.10%	24.40%
2. 我會把各單元重新組織來教授。	25.60%	58.10%	16.30%
3. 我會用概念圖來教學。	27.10%	55.30%	17.60%
4. 我會利用不同的教學活動(如訪問、分組活動、角色扮演等)協助教學。	7.00%	37.20%	55.80%
5. 我會利用不同媒體的資源(如錄像、電視、互聯網等)協助教學。	14.00%	53.50%	32.50%
6. 我會用不同組合的方法或合作方式來教授。	17.40%	50.00%	32.60%
7. 我會給學生足夠的時間去完成活動和作業。	4.70%	19.80%	75.50%
8. 我會策劃戶外學習活動給學生參與。	31.40%	47.70%	20.90%
9. 我會提供機會給學生家長和社團參與學校活動。	39.50%	46.50%	14.00%
10. 我會提醒同學參閱課外讀物，並提供合適的書目。	9.30%	36.00%	54.70%
11. 我會經常更新教材。	22.10%	59.30%	18.60%
12. 我會利用社區資源如圖書館、博物館、實驗農場等來協助教學。	25.60%	43.00%	31.40%

附件 I

調查數據

第三部份: 個人資料	
1. 性別	
男	24.70%
女	75.30%
2. 年齡	
30 歲以下	51.20%
31-40 歲	26.20%
41-50 歲	15.50%
50 歲以上	7.10%
3. 學歷	
教育文憑	54.60%
教育文憑與大學學位	2.30%
教育文憑與大專文憑	4.70%
大專文憑	2.30%
大學學位	31.40%
碩士或博士學位	4.70%

4. 現教授常識科的級別	
小一	17.60%
小一與小二	1.50%
小一與小三	1.50%
小一與小四	1.50%
小一與小六	1.50%
小二	16.10%
小二與小四	2.90%
小三	14.70%
小三與小四	1.50%
小三與小五	1.50%
小四	13.20%
小四與小六	1.50%
小五	10.30%
小五與小六	4.40%
小六	10.30%
5. 每週任教常識科的節數	
二節	1.50%
三節	19.70%
五節	51.50%
六節	15.20%
十二節	12.10%
每班的人數:	
29 人或以下	10.40%
30-34 人	62.70%
35 人或以上	26.90%

附件 II

調查數據 - 教育文憑教師

第一部份: 對跨學科課程的教學意見			
	(極)不同意	中立	(極)同意
1. 跨學科課程教學能加強學習的整全性。	3.90%	33.30%	62.80%
2. 跨學科課程教學要求學生作全方位的學習。	10.00%	22.00%	68.00%
3. 在跨學科課程教學中，知識的學習較技能與態度的學習更重要。	35.30%	33.30%	31.40%
4. 跨學科課程教學是指不同的學科同時教授類似或相關的課題。	5.80%	15.40%	78.80%
5. 跨學科課程教學的缺點是教學內容難免重複。	24.50%	40.80%	34.70%
6. 常識科作為跨學科課程不宜再把其他科目的課程滲進其中。	48.00%	30.00%	22.00%
7. 跨學科課程教學有助學生從不同角度認識同一個問題。	5.90%	11.80%	82.30%
8. 實踐跨學科課程教學能解決科目界限的制肘。	9.80%	25.50%	64.70%
9. 教師應設計 / 進行更多學生有興趣的活動。	2.00%	18.00%	80.00%
10. 跨學科課程教學需要學校、教師及家長之間的良好溝通。	2.00%	11.80%	86.20%
11. 跨學科課程教學應利用課室外的資源來協助教學。	0.00%	16.30%	83.70%
12. 跨學科課程設計應利用不同的教學策略及活動教學來配合。	0.00%	15.70%	84.30%
13. 學生應參與社區活動，以增加他們對日常生活的認識。	0.00%	6.00%	94.00%
14. 跨學科課程教學需要配合固定的上課時間。	20.40%	24.50%	55.10%
15. 要實踐跨學科課程教學，教師需要足夠的培訓。	2.00%	28.00%	70.00%
16. 實踐跨學科課程教學有困難，因為教師對其理念及缺乏深入的認識。	9.60%	40.40%	50.00%
17. 實踐跨學科課程教學有困難，因為教師對其中某些主題缺乏足夠知識及教學經驗。	7.80%	33.30%	58.90%
18. 實踐跨學科課程教學有困難，因為教師難以擺脫傳統的教學觀念。	2.10%	20.80%	77.10%
19. 教師在教具及教材製作上出現困難。	0.00%	11.80%	88.20%
20. 繁忙的教學及行政工作，令教師難以兼顧新的教學方法。	3.90%	11.80%	84.30%
21. 教師之間在課程設計及教學上的合作與協調出現困難。	5.90%	25.50%	68.60%
22. 課程建議的戶外活動，會引起學生的安全問題。	13.70%	29.40%	56.90%
23. 課堂上的活動所造成的噪音，會阻礙學生的學習。	15.70%	35.30%	49.00%
24. 校外的支援，如教育署、課程發展處和師資培訓機構，有所不足。	0.00%	23.50%	76.50%
25. 校方對科程改革未有提供足夠的支援。	3.90%	29.40%	66.70%
26. 教學資源不足，如教科書、參考書、教具等。	0.00%	25.50%	74.50%

第二部份: 教學實況			
	從不	間中	常常
1. 我會設計教學策略(例如資料蒐集和個案研究)去引導學生探究日常生活中的問題。	12.50%	62.50%	25.00%
2. 我會把各單元重新組織來教授。	29.80%	55.30%	14.90%
3. 我會用概念圖來教學。	29.20%	56.30%	14.50%
4. 我會利用不同的教學活動(如訪問、分組活動、角色扮演等)協助教學。	8.50%	36.20%	55.30%
5. 我會利用不同媒體的資源(如錄像、電視、互聯網等)協助教學。	16.70%	58.30%	25.00%
6. 我會用不同組合的方法或合作方式來教授。	22.00%	52.00%	26.00%
7. 我會給學生足夠的時間去完成活動和作業。	6.50%	28.30%	65.20%
8. 我會策劃戶外學習活動給學生參與。	31.30%	52.10%	16.60%
9. 我會提供機會給學生家長和社團參與學校活動。	43.80%	54.20%	2.00%
10. 我會提醒同學參閱課外讀物，並提供合適的書目。	6.50%	43.50%	50.00%
11. 我會經常更新教材。	18.80%	68.70%	12.50%
12. 我會利用社區資源如圖書館、博物館、實驗農場等來協助教學。	27.70%	44.70%	27.60%

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附件 III

調查數據 - 非教育文憑教師

第一部份: 對跨學科課程的教學意見			
	(極)不同意	中立	(極)同意
1. 跨學科課程教學能加強學習的整全性。	2.90%	37.10%	60.00%
2. 跨學科課程教學要求學生作全方位的學習。	2.90%	37.10%	60.00%
3. 在跨學科課程教學中，知識的學習較技能與態度的學習更重要。	35.90%	33.30%	30.80%
4. 跨學科課程教學是指不同的學科同時教授類似或相關的課題。	17.60%	32.40%	50.00%
5. 跨學科課程教學的缺點是教學內容難免重覆。	27.00%	40.60%	32.40%
6. 常識科作為跨學科課程不宜再把其他科目的課程滲進其中。	45.90%	29.80%	24.30%
7. 跨學科課程教學有助學生從不同角度認識同一個問題。	5.70%	17.20%	77.10%
8. 實踐跨學科課程教學能解決科目界限的制肘。	5.80%	34.10%	60.10%
9. 教師應設計/進行更多學生有興趣的活動。	3.00%	18.20%	78.80%
10. 跨學科課程教學需要學校、教師及家長之間的良好溝通。	9.10%	18.20%	72.70%
11. 跨學科課程教學應利用課室外的資源來協助教學。	9.10%	7.00%	83.90%
12. 跨學科課程設計應利用不同的教學策略及活動教學來配合。	2.80%	13.90%	83.30%
13. 學生應參與社區活動，以增加他們對日常生活的認識。	5.40%	16.20%	78.40%
14. 跨學科課程教學需要配合固定的上課時間。	25.70%	25.70%	48.60%
15. 要實踐跨學科課程教學，教師需要足夠的培訓。	6.00%	18.20%	75.80%
16. 實踐跨學科課程教學有困難，因為教師對其理念及缺乏深入的認識。	8.60%	37.10%	54.30%
17. 實踐跨學科課程教學有困難，因為教師對其中某些主題缺乏足夠知識及教學經驗。	11.10%	30.60%	58.30%
18. 實踐跨學科課程教學有困難，因為教師難以擺脫傳統的教學觀念。	12.80%	20.50%	66.70%
19. 教師在教具及教材製作上出現困難。	5.90%	23.50%	70.60%
20. 繁忙的教學及行政工作，令教師難以兼顧新的教學方法。	9.70%	12.90%	77.40%
21. 教師之間在課程設計及教學上的合作與協調出現困難。	16.10%	19.40%	64.50%
22. 課程建議的戶外活動，會引起學生的安全問題。	25.70%	25.70%	48.60%
23. 課堂上的活動所造成的躁音，會阻礙學生的學習。	42.90%	34.30%	22.80%
24. 校外的支援，如教育署、課程發展處和師資培訓機構，有所不足。	11.40%	22.90%	65.70%
25. 校方對科程改革未有提供足夠的支援。	22.90%	22.90%	54.20%
26. 教學資源不足，如教科書、參考書、教具等。	14.30%	22.90%	62.80%

第二部份: 教學實況			
	從不	間中	常常
1. 我會設計教學策略(例如資料蒐集和個案研究)去引導學生探究日常生活中的問題。	8.60%	68.60%	22.80%
2. 我會把各單元重新組織來教授。	20.00%	60.00%	20.00%
3. 我會用概念圖來教學。	23.50%	52.90%	23.60%
4. 我會利用不同的教學活動(如訪問、分組活動、角色扮演等)協助教學。	5.60%	44.40%	50.00%
5. 我會利用不同媒體的資源(如錄像、電視、互聯網等)協助教學。	11.40%	45.70%	42.90%
6. 我會用不同組合的方法或合作方式來教授。	11.40%	42.90%	45.70%
7. 我會給學生足夠的時間去完成活動和作業。	5.70%	20.00%	74.30%
8. 我會策劃戶外學習活動給學生參與。	31.40%	42.90%	25.70%
9. 我會提供機會給學生家長和社團參與學校活動。	37.10%	37.00%	25.80%
10. 我會提醒同學參閱課外讀物，並提供合適的書目。	11.80%	29.40%	58.80%
11. 我會經常更新教材。	27.30%	42.40%	30.30%
12. 我會利用社區資源如圖書館、博物館、實驗農場等來協助教學。	22.90%	40.00%	37.10%

香港中學中文科輔導教學模式的調查研究

劉潔玲

香港中文大學教育心理學系

本研究是以問卷調查的形式，分別就中文輔導班的教學內容、教學方法和習作類別探討現時香港一般中學中文科輔導教學的模式，及學生對中文科輔導教學效能的觀感。調查結果顯示，中文科輔導班的教學內容主要集中在範文教學和低層次的字詞教學上，較少進行高層次的閱讀和寫作策略教學；在教學方法方面，大多數的教師都是以直接的知識灌輸為主，課堂形式較為單向，學生的參與機會較少，而教師主要是以外在強化的方法提高學生的學習動機。另外，在學生對輔導教學效能的觀感方面，學生的意見較為中性，大部分學生對輔導教學效能的評分不高，但又不至於完全否定輔導教學的效能。針對目前中文科輔導教學的不足之處及配合香港未來的教育改革方向，本文建議香港的教育工作者可以嘗試參考西方的介入研究，從提高學生掌握高層次的讀寫策略、後設認知的能力及學習中文的內在興趣著手，改變傳統的中文科教學模式，使輔導教學更能切合成績落後學生的需要。

A Survey Of The Chinese Language Remedial Teaching In Hong Kong Secondary Schools

This study aimed to investigate the Chinese language remedial teaching in Hong Kong secondary schools. Specifically, the teaching content, teaching instruction, and types of assignment in the Chinese language remedial classes, as well as the students' perspectives on the effectiveness of remedial teaching, were examined. The survey findings in this study revealed that teaching in Chinese language remedial classes was dominated by prescribed texts and lower-level word skills while higher-level reading and writing strategies were seldom taught. Moreover, teachers mainly focused on knowledge transmission rather than teaching students how to acquire knowledge by themselves. Students in remedial classes had very few chances to participate and they were mainly motivated by extrinsic reinforcement. Regarding the effectiveness of remedial teaching, the survey findings indicated that students had a moderate attitude on their learning in Chinese language remedial classes. Although they thought remedial teaching could not help them much, they did not completely disregard its importance. Finally, this paper posited that, in order to meet the special needs of Chinese low achievers and the recent educational reform in Hong Kong, the tradition Chinese language remedial teaching practices should be altered through emphasizing the importance of higher-level reading and writing ability, metacognitive ability, and intrinsic motivation on learning Chinese language.

引言

近年在很多教育改革的討論中，香港的教育工作者都經常談論到「拔尖保底」的問題，其實香港自1978年開始實施了九年強迫教育後，因為學生的個別差異大了，因此如何照顧不同能力學生的需要，一直是很多前線教育工作者經常要面對的重要問題。由於香港現時一般學校的課程設計和教學安排主要是為水準相近的學生而設的，加上每班學生人數眾多，教師不容易照顧個別落後的學生，因此為了協助有學習困難的學生在普通學校內進行學習，香港早在1982年已開始在中、小學設立了輔導教學，以幫助成績落後的學生克服在中、英、數三科的學習困難（HKEC, 1990; Lau, 1998）。

在香港輔導教學已實施了接近二十年，但現行的輔導教學模式是否能夠有效地協助學業成績稍遜的學生，卻尚未有定論。一直以來教育署對於一般中學實施輔導教學的規限都頗為寬鬆，除了在學生人數和分班方法方面有清晰的指引外，對於輔導班內的教學內容和方法，教育署都只有建議而無硬性規限（可參看香港教育署，2000），不同的學校在實施輔導教學時可以有很大的差異。過去香港很少關於輔導教學的研究，大部分有關輔導教學的討論，都只是基於教育工作者的個人觀察和一些政府報告內零碎的評論，例如教育委員會在1997年發

表的《九年強迫教育檢討報告》和教統會在1990年發表的《第四號報告書》均曾經討論過輔導教學的效能，雖然這些報告大致上對輔導教學的價值頗為肯定，但有學者卻批評現時大多數學校在施行輔導教學的質素上十分參差（Cheng et al., 1997; Hui & Yung, 1992）。

就中文科的輔導教學而言，過往雖然有不少研究顯示，成績稍遜學生在閱讀和寫作方面均出現不少的問題（例如謝錫金及張瑞文, 1993; 羅燕琴, 1997; 蘇月華, 1995; Siu, 1988; So & Siegel, 1997），但卻很少有研究探討這些學生所接受的中文教學模式。目前有關中文教學模式的討論，幾乎全部都是根據教育工作者的觀察和經驗，而這些評論大部分都是較為負面的，例如不少學者批評目前香港中文科的教學內容過分重視範文教學，忽略了語文能力的訓練，而且教學方法方面以知識灌輸為主，學生的參與性很低（周漢光, 1999; 何文勝, 1999 ; Tse et al., 1995）。針對中文科輔導教學而言，亦有學者批評輔導班原應是專為成績落後學生而設的，但很多輔導班的教學模式卻跟普通班相差不大，輔導班的教師很多時也是依賴教科書，以範文教學為主，並沒有特別為輔導班設計不同的教學內容和進度，加上教學方法仍是以講授性和操練性為主，對提高學生的語文能力並沒有太大的幫助（梁振威, 2000）。

輔導教學是香港現時最主要幫助成績落後學生的途徑，然而有關輔導教學的研究卻相當缺乏，在這方面，西方為有學習困難的學生而進行的介入研究（intervention study），可以作為香港學者的借鏡。目前西方有關讀寫問題的介入研究，主要是建基於資訊傳遞理論（Information Processing Theory）對閱讀和寫作認知過程的分析，針對低能力的學生不懂得在閱讀或寫作的過程中運用適當策略的問題，這些研究會設計適合的課程幫助學生提高運用讀寫策略的能力（Deshler & Schumaker, 1993; Guthrie & Alao, 1997; Harris & Graham, 1999; Palincsar & Brown, 1984; Palincsar et al., 1993; Pressley, et al., 1995; 1998; Wong, 1997）。新的介入課程與傳統的輔導教學最大的不同之處，是不再從補救的角度出發，只操練學生低層次的字詞能力，而是從培養學生的認知能力（cognition）、後設認知能力（metacognition）和內在動機（intrinsic motivation）三方面，徹底改善這些學生的學習問題。在認知層面上，課程會透過教導學生高層次的讀寫策略，以增強學生的讀寫和思考能力（Dole et al., 1991）；在後設認知能力的培養方面，課程會改變以教師為主導的教學模式，著重培養出學生對讀寫過程的自我覺知（self-awareness）和監控能力（monitoring），使學生成為獨立和靈活的策略運用者（Paris et al., 1994; Pressley et al., 1998; Schunk & Zimmerman, 1997）；另外，這些課程同時會加入提高學生學習動機的原素，例如加強學生的自我效能感、改變他們負面的歸因信念、盡量讓學生在生活化的情景和互動的學習環境中學習使用策略，藉此增加學生投入學習活動和使用策略的主動性（Chan, 1996; Clark, 1996; Guthrie & Alao, 1997; Wong, 1997）。

近年西方在介入研究方面的成功經驗，讓我們看到要真正幫助成績落後的學生，並不是單單將他們安排在人數較少的輔導班，便能夠保證他們的學習問題會自然迎刃而解，輔導教學能否成功，是取決於課程內容和教學方法是否配合學生的需要，因此要客觀討論香港中文科輔導教學的成效，我們必須先了解一般學校實際施行中文科輔導教學的情況。由於目前香港無論在輔導教學抑或是中文科教學方面的討論，幾乎全部都只是基於教育工作者的觀察和經驗，因此本研究的主要目的是探討香港中文科輔導教學的現況，提供一些客觀和全面的數據以供教育工作者參考。具體而言，本研究有以下兩個目的：

第一，透過問卷調查的方式，探討現時香港中學中文科輔導教學的一般模式。本研究會參考西方介入研究的取向，從認知、後設認知和動機三個角度設計問卷的題目，分別就中文輔導班的教學內容、教學方法和習作類別進行探討，有關的結果可以讓我們對現時的中文科輔導教學有更全面和客觀的了解，以作為討論輔導教學效能的基礎，並且喚起更多教育工作者對中文科輔導教學的關注，可以在此基礎之下，進一步提出改善的建議，及在未來進行更多有關輔導教學的研究。

其次，過去有關中文或輔導教學的評論，都是來自教育工作者的意見和觀感，但學生作為輔導教學的主要對象，卻經常被忽略，因此本研究會以輔導班的學生為調查的對象，除了會了解學生眼中的輔導教學模式之外，亦會詢問他們對中文科輔導教學效能的觀感，從學生的角度評估輔導教學的成效。

研究方法

參與者

參與本研究的學生共有318人，包括131名男生及186名女生，由於大部分的中學只在中一級開設中文科輔導班，因此參與研究的學生之中有209人是中一學生，其餘是中二及中三學生，學生年齡介乎11至18

歲。這些學生分別來自10間中學17組不同的中文輔導班，其中包括不同成績組別的學校（即第一至第五組別學校），大致上能反映香港不同的中學在實施中文科輔導教學時的一般情況。

研究工具

本研究是以問卷調查的形式進行，除了學生的基本資料外，問卷內容共分為四部分，題目的設計主要是參考學者對傳統中文科教學的論述及西方有關讀寫教學的介入研究，以下會簡單介紹各部分題目的設計，至於具體的題目內容，可以參考本文附錄所列出的例子。

(1) 中文科輔導班的教學內容，共有10題，以五點量表的形式測量，1代表「從未教過」；2代表「甚少會教」；3代表「有時會教」；4代表「常常會教」；5代表「經常會教」，分數愈高反映教師愈經常教授該項內容；

(2) 中文科輔導班的教學方法，共有12題，以五點量表的形式測量，1代表「從未試過」；2代表「甚少會這樣教」；3代表「有時會這樣教」；4代表「常常會這樣教」；5代表「經常會這樣教」，分數愈高反映教師愈經常運用該項方法進行教學；

(3) 中文科輔導班的習作類別，共有6題，以五點量表的形式測量，1代表「從未做過」；2代表「甚少要做」；3代表「有時要做」；4代表「常常要做」；5代表「經常要做」，分數愈高反映教師愈經常給予學生該類習作；

(4) 學生對中文科輔導教學成效的觀感，共有10題，以五點量表的形式分別就語文能力、後設認知能力和學習動機三方面測量學生是否覺得輔導教學對他們有幫助，1代表「沒有幫助」；2代表「不太有幫助」；3代表「有點幫助」；4代表「有幫助」；5代表「十分有幫助」，分數愈高反映學生愈肯定輔導教學在該方面的效能。

研究程序

所有問卷均是由該校任教中文科輔導班的教師在上課時派發予學生填寫，每位負責教師均有一份劃一的派發問卷須知，他們會按照問卷上的作答指引向學生講解如何填寫問卷，並且會向學生保證作答的內容會保密及只作研究用途。由於輔導班學生的中文程度較低，因此學生在作答時有任何不明白的字句，均可以向教師發問。學生作答全份問卷約需時15至30分鐘，最後會由教師即堂收集及交回研究者。

研究結果

中文輔導班的教學內容

表一將各項中文輔導班的教學內容按照經常教授的次序加以排列，從中可以看到範文教學是輔導班最經常會教的內容，其次是字詞教學和基本的閱讀教學，而較複雜的閱讀和寫作技巧則只是「有時會教」，而在各類教學內容中以跟後設認知能力有關的訓練是最少教授的。調查結果反映出中文輔導班的教學是以範文和低層次的技巧為主導，學生較少有機會學習較複雜的讀寫技巧和培養主動監控學習歷程的能力。

表一：中文輔導班教師經常教授的教學內容統計

教學內容	平均數	標準差
範文教學	4.05	.89
字詞教學	3.70	.91
閱讀教學 - 掌握文章重點	3.57	1.01
語法教學	3.54	.86
作文教學 -- 構思內容和寫作	3.52	.88
作文教學 -- 重看及修改	3.20	1.15
閱讀教學 -- 閱讀理解的技巧	3.12	.95
後設認知訓練 -- 處理學習問題和困難	3.06	1.03
後設認知訓練 -- 自我覺知	2.90	1.06
後設認知訓練 -- 訂立學習目標及定期監控	2.78	.99

中文輔導班的教學方法

表二將各項中文輔導班的教學方法按照經常運用的次序加以排列，從中可以看到教師最多採用的是直接講授知識的教學方法，而很少會親身示範如何運用語文技巧或讀寫策略，師生之間的互動主要是來自由教師作主導的提問，相反，以學生為中心的教學方法，包括分組討論、個別指導和課堂活動都甚少會被採用，反映出課堂的形式是以教師為主導的知識灌輸，學生多是處於被動接收的位置；至於在各項提高學生學習動機的教學方法之中，教師主要採用的是獎勵、口頭稱讚和強調進步等較易施行的方法，但一些較需要花時間預備的多元化教學形式，例如用生活化的教材和輔助教材施教及進行戶外活動則甚少會被採用，課堂的形式較為單調。

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表二：中文輔導班教師經常運用的教學方法統計

教學方法	平均數	標準差
直接講授知識	3.74	.96
教師提問	3.49	.98
獎勵或稱讚	3.32	1.26
強調進步	3.26	1.13
給予評語	3.19	1.07
用生活化的教材	2.95	1.06
教師示範	2.57	1.05
分組討論	2.50	1.12
個別指導	2.48	1.08
課堂活動	2.39	1.12
用輔助教材	2.31	1.09
戶外活動	1.77	1.01

中文輔導班的習作類別

表三將各項中文輔導班的習作類別按照學生經常要做的次序加以排列，從中可以看到學生最經常要做的是與課文有關的習作，跟教學內容以範文教學為主導的情況配合；學生其次經常要做的是默書，屬於低層次字詞背誦和操練的習作形式；與語文知識和讀寫技巧有關的習作只是「有時要做」；而最少機會做的習作則是閱讀課外書籍。從學生經常要做的習作類別中，可以再一次反映出中文輔導班的教學是以範文和低層次語文知識為主導，學生較少機會學習和練習運用高層次的讀寫策略及吸收範文以外的知識。

表三：中文輔導班教師經常給予學生的習作類別統計

習作類別	平均數	標準差
與課文有關的習作，例如預習、課後問題	3.88	.97
默書	3.80	.98
有關生字、詞語或句式的練習	3.48	1.01
作文或簡短寫作	3.22	.89
閱讀理解練習	3.22	.93
閱讀課外書	2.84	1.15

學生對中文輔導教學效能的觀感

表四將中文輔導教學在改善學生能力和動機的各項效能，按照學生覺得對他們有幫助的程度加以排列，從中可以看到學生對各項效能的評分十分接近，大部分學生都傾向選擇「3」，即輔導教學對他們「有一點幫助」。相對而言，學生覺得輔導教學在幫助他們掌握語文能力方面較有效，其次是增加後設認知能力，最後是改善學習中文的動機。值得注意的是，在各項改善語文能力的項目上，學生對輔導教學在幫助他們掌握閱讀理解方法的評價是最低的，反映出學生雖然在課堂上大部分的時間都是在閱讀範文，但他們卻並不覺得在課堂中可以吸收到有效的閱讀方法。

表四：學生對中文輔導教學效能的觀感

對學生的幫助	平均數	標準差
語文能力 -- 掌握一般的語文知識	3.52	.93
語文能力 -- 掌握課文的內容	3.44	.93
語文能力 -- 掌握寫作的方法	3.32	.93
後設認知能力 -- 掌握學習的方法	3.31	1.02
後設認知能力 -- 改善學習的問題	3.30	1.02
後設認知能力 -- 了解自己的學習問題	3.26	1.06
語文能力 -- 掌握閱讀理解的方法	3.23	.94
學習動機 -- 增加學習中文的信心	3.23	1.12
學習動機 -- 增加學習中文的興趣	3.19	1.20
學習動機 -- 改善對學習中文的態度	2.92	1.08

不同成績組別學生的比較

在對問卷內的各項題目進行了描述性的分析之後，本研究再進一步將學生按照所屬學校的成績組別分為兩組，以屬於第一及第二組學校的輔導班學生代表一般成績組學生，以屬於第三至第五組學校的學生代表低成績組學生，再就問卷中的各項題目進行了一系列的t-test分析，以比較不同成績組別的學校在中文科輔導教學的模式上是否有差異。從t-test的結果反映出，在大部分的項目上不同成績組別學生的答案均頗為接近，其中有顯著差異的項目則於表五中列出。在教學內容方面，低成績組學生比一般成績組學生較經常學習字詞和語法等基本的知識，相反，一般成績組的學生卻較多機會學習較複雜的重看和修改作文策略；在教學方法方面，低成績組學生的教師會較經常運用獎勵和稱讚去提高學生的動機；在習作類別方面，低成績組學生較經常要做低層次的字詞練習，而一般成績組的學生則較多機會閱讀課外書籍。

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表五：不同成績組別學校在中文輔導教學的內容、方法及習作類別上的差異

教學內容 / 方法	學生組別	人數	平均數	標準差	t值
教學內容：					
字詞教學	中	137	3.55	.91	-2.59**
	低	181	3.82	.89	
語法教學	中	136	3.40	.84	-2.58**
	低	179	3.65	.87	
作文教學 - 重看及修改	中	137	3.42	1.13	2.89**
	低	181	3.04	1.14	
教學方法：					
獎勵或稱讚	中	137	3.07	1.22	-3.10**
	低	180	3.51	1.27	
習作類別：					
字詞練習	中	137	3.34	1.00	-2.09*
	低	177	3.58	1.01	
閱讀課外書籍	中	137	3.02	1.12	2.51*
	低	179	2.70	1.15	

註：* 代表 $p < .05$； ** 代表 $p < .01$ 「中」代表一般成績的學生；「低」代表學業成績較低的學生

不同年級學生的比較

本研究以中一學生代表低年級組學生，然後再將中二及中三學生合併為高年級組學生，就問卷中的各項內容進行了另一系列的t-test分析，以比較不同年級學生在中文科輔導教學模式上的差異。t-test分析的結果發現，不同年級學生所接受的中文輔導教學模式無論在教學內容、教學方法或習作類別上均沒有太多的差異，唯一的不同只是中一學生較多字詞教學和有關的練習。至於在對輔導教學效能的觀感上，則從表六中可以看到十項題目中有八項是有顯著的年級差異，各項結果均一致反映出中一學生對輔導教學效能的觀感較高年級學生為正面。

表六：不同年級學生在中文輔導教學的內容、習作類別及觀感上的差異

教學內容 / 方法	學生組別	人數	平均數	標準差	t值
教學內容：					
字詞教學	低	209	3.84	.88	3.83***
	高	108	3.44	.90	
習作類別：					
字詞練習	低	207	3.59	.99	2.72**
	高	106	3.26	1.03	
閱讀課外書籍	低	208	2.94	1.16	2.15*
	高	107	2.64	1.12	
對輔導教學效能的觀感：					
掌握一般的語文知識	低	201	3.67	.92	3.92***
	高	108	3.24	.88	
掌握課文的內容	低	204	3.57	.91	3.49**
	高	108	3.19	.92	
掌握寫作的方法	低	201	3.45	.92	3.38**
	高	108	3.08	.91	
掌握學習的方法	低	203	3.45	1.01	3.27**
	高	108	3.06	1.00	
改善學習的問題	低	204	3.40	.98	2.34*
	高	108	3.12	1.07	
掌握閱讀理解的方法	低	203	3.40	.93	4.42***
	高	108	2.92	.89	
增加學習中文的信心	低	204	3.34	1.10	2.27*
	高	108	3.04	1.14	
增加學習中文的興趣	低	204	3.35	1.17	3.21**
	高	108	2.90	1.19	

註：* 代表 $p < .05$; ** 代表 $p < .01$；
*** 代表 $p < .001$
「低」代表中一級學生；「高」代表中二及中三學生

討論及總結

綜合本研究的調查結果，大致與一般教育工作者的評論頗為吻合，反映出現時的中文科輔導教學主要是以範文和低層次的字詞教學為主導，教師較少教授高層次讀寫技巧和培養學生的後設認知能力，學生缺乏機會學習如何運用讀寫策略和吸收範文以外的知識；在教學方法方面，教師主要是以直接講解的方法將知識灌輸給學生，較少採用多元化的教材和教學活動，是典型的「粉筆加口述」("chalk and talk") 的講課模式。

由於本研究所採用的研究方法是問卷調查，有關的數據只可以描述出現時香港中文科輔導教學的一般情況，並不能解釋現況背後的原因，而且調查的對象是學生，因此在引伸結果時亦有一定的限制，不過，作為教育工作者，調查所得的資料可以有助我們進一步討論現行的教學模式在改善學生語文學習的成效。就發展學生的讀寫能力而言，調查結果反映出現時的輔導教學主要是集中在範文教學上，甚少直接教授學生閱讀或寫作的策略，加上教師主要的教學方法是單向的知識灌輸，學生缺乏參與的機會，大多數的時間只是被動地按著教師的指示和進度接收與範文有關的知識，因此能力較弱的學生未必能夠自行融會貫通，結果可能只能靠背誦去死記範文的資料，而不是學會自己理解文章或吸收到文章的寫作方法。另外，在培養學習動機方面，調查結果反映出教師主要是以獎勵和口頭稱讚的方法去提高學生的外在動機，卻較少從培養學生的內在動機著手改善他們學習的問題，由於中文課堂的形式較為單調，學生也很少有機會在生活化的情景和互動的環境下進行學習，因此對於一般動機較弱的輔導班學生而言，輔導教學並不容易建立他們對學習中文的內在興趣。

從學生對中文科輔導教學效能的觀感看，大部分學生對輔導教學抱持較中性的態度，既不覺得輔導教學對他們有很大的幫助，又不致完全否定輔導教學的存在價值。事實上，將有學習困難的學生集中在人數較少的輔導班中，的確是可以提供較有利的學習環境，讓教師更能照顧到這些學生的需要，但從調查結果看來，輔導班還需要在教學內容和方法上作出更多適當的配合，才能真正幫助學生提高語文的能力和興趣。其中尤其值得注意的是，調查結果顯示，高年級輔導班的學生對輔導教學效能的評價較為負面，由於在填寫問卷時中一級的學生只是上了一個學期的輔導課，對輔導教學模式的了解應該不深，出現這樣的結果，是否意味著當學生升到較高年級，對輔導教學有更多的了解後，對其教學效能亦會更有保留？另一個可能的解釋，是高年級輔導班的學生有較多學業失敗的經驗，根據資料顯示，這些中二及中三學生之中有接近一半（49人）從前也曾經是輔導班的學生，長期被編入輔導班的經驗，很可能會使這些學生對自己的學習能力和輔導教學的效能有較負面的看法，這情況亦反映出現時的輔導教學對這些長期成績落後的學生似乎幫助不大。

比較不同學生所接受的輔導教學模式，亦有兩點頗值得教育工作者反思。第一，不同年級和成績組別的輔導班學生，無論在教學內容、教學方法以至習作類別的大部分題目上，都沒有顯著的差異，這情況意味著教師在進行輔導教學時，似乎並沒有因應學生不同的語文程度和年級調整教學的重點和方法。另一點值得注意的是，在少數有成績組別差異的項目中，卻反映出一個令人擔憂的現象，調查結果顯示，低成績組學生比一般成績組學生花了更多時間在低層次知識的學習和操練上，卻較少時間學習高層次的技巧和閱讀課外書籍，這個現象很可能是因為教師在教學時要遷就低能力學生的程度，本來是無可厚非的，但過去有學者曾提出這種傾向的潛在問題，將這種情況稱為「馬太效應」(Matthew effect)，意思是「貧者愈貧，富者愈富」，學者批評只是降低程度操練低層次技巧的輔導教學，反而會剝削了這些學生學習高層次技能的機會，最終只會令低成就的學生落後於其他學生的水平愈來愈遠（Allington & McGill-Franzen, 1989; Stanovich, 1986），因此如何設計既適合輔導班學生程度，又能幫助他們逐步提高能力的輔導教學，是很值得教育工作者深思的課題。

總結而言，現時香港的中文科輔導教學，仍然是沿用傳統為一般能力學生而設的教學模式，如果將調查所得的結果與西方近年成功的介入課程比較，無論從認知能力、後設認知能力或動機的層面看，現時中文科的輔導教學似乎都未有特別針對語文能力較弱學生的需要。輔導教學在香港實行了這麼多年，最初的目的是希望將成績落後的學生編入人數較少的輔導班，以便幫助他們解決學習的問題，然而，要達致這個目的，輔導班的教師必須要配合這些學生的需要設計合適的教學模式，才能發揮輔導教學的最大效能。

踏入廿一世紀，在教育改革浪潮下，如何能夠配合不同學生的需要，因材施教，讓學生不但學到知識，更學會學習的方法，正是未來香港教育發展的重要方向（HKCDC, 2000; HKEC, 2000）。配合課程改革的發展，中文科沿用多年的課程亦將面臨重大的轉變，最近課程發展議會（2000）公佈的課程改革諮詢文件指出，在2002年初中中文科便會實施新的課程，引進單元

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組織教學，以能力的培養為主導，及容許學校設計更靈活的校本課程，這些改變比過去以範文教學為主導的教學更有利於發展學生的語文能力，而西方在介入研究方面所強調的讀寫策略訓練模式，正好與目前的課程改革方向吻合，可以作為香港教育工作者發展新教學模式的參考，從讀寫能力、後設認知能力和內在動機三方面，更全面地幫助成績落後的學生改善學習的問題。展望未來，如何落實教育改革，靈活吸收西方的研究經驗，以設計出更有效的輔導教學模式，將是香港教育工作者重要的努力方向。

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(Received: 15.6.01, accepted 16.8.01, revised 24.8.01)

附錄：學生問卷題目舉例

中文輔導班的教學內容

根據過去你在中文輔導班的學習經驗，你的老師是否會經常教授以下的內容：

教學內容	從未教過	甚少會教	有時會教	常常會教	經常會教
1. 教生字或詞語的讀音和字義	1	2	3	4	5
2. 教中文的語法知識	1	2	3	4	5
3. 教學生做閱讀理解練習的技巧	1	2	3	4	5

中文輔導班的教學方法

根據過去你在中文輔導班的學習經驗，你的老師是否經常會用以下的方法來教書：

教學方法	從未試過	甚少會這樣	有時會這樣	常常會這樣	經常會這樣
1. 由老師直接將知識講解給學生	1	2	3	4	5
2. 老師用提問的方法與學生進行討論	1	2	3	4	5
3. 由學生分組作小組討論或合作完成一些教學活動	1	2	3	4	5

中文輔導班的習作類別

根據過去你在中文輔導班的學習經驗，你是否經常要做以下的習作（包括在堂上或課後）：

習作類別	從未做過	甚少要做	有時要做	常常要做	經常要做
1. 與課文有關的習作，例如預習、課後問題	1	2	3	4	5
2. 閱讀理解練習	1	2	3	4	5
3. 作文或簡短寫作	1	2	3	4	5

對中文輔導班的觀感

你覺得在中文輔導班的學習是否能夠幫助你：

	十分有幫助	有幫助	有一點幫助	不太有幫助	沒有幫助
1. 更掌握課文的內容	1	2	3	4	5
2. 更掌握閱讀理解的方法	1	2	3	4	5
3. 更掌握寫作的方法	1	2	3	4	5

香港小學一年級句子教學材料初探

吳淑瑩
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句子教學是小學中國語文教學中重要的一環，香港的小學教師多運用閱讀教材所提供的句子教學材料來進行句子教學。本文選取了三套香港大部份小學採用的中國語文課本，檢視其中小學一年級課本中有關句子教學的材料，就句子長短、數量、式樣等方面進行比較，初步探索了一些小學句子教學的問題，為語文教學工作者提供討論的材料，以期集思廣益，提升句子教學的素質。

A Preliminary Study of the Materials of Sentence Teaching for Primary 1 Students in Hong Kong

Sentence teaching is an important segment in the teaching of Chinese Language in Primary Schools in Hong Kong. Teachers always use the materials of the sentence teaching provided by the textbooks. This paper compares the materials of sentence teaching of three sets of Primary 1 Chinese textbooks. The differences between the length and the pattern of the sentences, the quantity of the materials will be discussed. It is hoped that such discussions can help to enhance the quality of sentences teaching in the teaching of Chinese Language.

一．研究動機與目的

句子是語言的基本運用單位，人們在交際和交流思想的過程中，不論運用口頭語或書面語，都要用句子來表達一個完整的意思。句子教學的著眼點是幫助學生分辨句子的功能，認識不同類型的句子，從而學習可使用的語法規律，並且在閱讀和聆聽時，能夠運用這些規律掌握別人要表達的意思；在寫作和說話時，能夠運用這些規律表達自己的意思。句子教學是小學中國語文科教學中一個重要的環節，跟小學生語文能力的培養關係很大。

香港的小學中國語文科教師都很重視句子教學的環節，教師一般都是運用閱讀教材提供的句子教學材料來進行句子教學，所以句子教學的重點和程度跟學校所採用的閱讀教材有很大的關係。香港小學中國語文科的閱讀教材，即語文課本，由坊間出版社編製，各出版社根據課程綱要靈活發揮，不同出版社的教材內容有同有異，句子教學的編排因此有不同的面貌和差距。本文以小學一年級的閱讀教材為範圍，比較其中的句子教學材料的數量和形式，探討有關編排的差異與學生學習語文的關係，為語文教學工作者提供討論的材料，以期集思廣益，提升句子教學的素質。

二．研究方式

本文以三套香港大部分小學所採用的中國語文課本為研究對象（樣本代號分別為甲、乙和丙），檢閱了這三套課本的小學一年級部分，分析其中有關「句式」教學的材料，就句子數量、句子長短、句型和句類幾方面進行比較。

句子數量和長短是句子教學內容的份量；句型和句類則是句子教學內容的變化，比較這幾方面的資料，即等於比較這三套課本中句子教學材料的質和量。句型是就結構和格局分析句子，把句子分為單句、複句、主謂句、非主謂句等；句類是就語氣分析句子，把句子分成

陳述句、疑問句、祈使句和感數句。（胡裕樹，1992）小學中國語文課本中有關句子教學的環節，一般用「句式」一詞，檢視其內容，其實包括了句型和句類的觀念。

三、資料分析和討論

1. 句式數量

下表為三套課本的課文篇數和教學重點所列句式數目的統計資料：

（表一）

	學期	課文篇數	句式數目和比例			
			句式數目	比例	減去重出後數目	比例
樣本甲	上	28	34	1：1.21	28	1：1.00
	下	28	25	1：0.89	25	1：0.89
樣本乙	上	25	17	1：0.68	17	1：0.68
	下	25	15	1：0.60	15	1：0.60
樣本丙	上	26	20	1：0.77	20	1：0.77
	下	26	26	1：1.00	25	1：0.96

樣本甲一年級課文篇數兩學期合共56篇，句式數目不計算重出者，共有53句，篇數和句數的比例上學期為1與1之比，下學期為1與0.89之比，全年約為1與0.91之比。樣本乙一年級課文篇數兩學期合共50篇，句式數目不計算重出者，共有32句，篇數和句數的比例上學期為1與0.68之比，下學期為1與0.6之比，全年約為1與0.64之比。樣本丙一年級課文篇數兩學期合共52篇，句式數目不計算重出者，共有45句，篇數和句數的比例上學期為1與0.77之比，下學期為1與0.96之比，全年約為1與0.87之比。

句子教學的其中一個作用是幫助學生認識不同類型的句子，讓他們可以運用不同的句子式樣，恰當地表達不同的意思。學生學習的句子式樣愈多，表情達意的選擇也會愈多，而課本中句式數量的多寡，直接影響學生可以學習和吸收的句子式樣的數量。比較表一的資料，樣本甲的課文篇數和句式數目都是最多的，樣本丙次之，樣本乙最少。課文篇數方面，最多的和最少的相差6篇，差距不算大；但句式數目方面，最多的則為最少的1.6倍，相差21句，差距相當大。不同的學校選用不同的課本，在教材編排有別的情形下，小學一年級學生在句式學習數量方面的起步點差異實在很大。

2. 句子長短

下表為三套課本句式學習例句的句子長短的統計資料：

（表二）

	學期	例句字數（不計算標點）	
		最少	最多
樣本甲	上	我是小學生。（5字）	兒童節目有卡通片，有魔術表演，還有「動物世界」和「小朋友天地」。（25字）
	下	外面沒有人。（5字）	當我用手捧起一點點水時，月亮落在我的手裏了。（20字）
樣本乙	上	我上學去。（4字）	讓他們接聖誕老人回家吧。（11字）
	下	小羊害怕得大叫。（7字）	我們最大的快樂，就是在一起唱歌。（14字）
樣本丙	上	我是小學生。（5字）	放假的時候，我們要做些什麼呢？（13字）
	下	我叫小鼓響三聲。（7字）	我學到了許多知識，也交上了不少朋友。（16字）

比較表二的資料，最短的句子只有4個字：「我上學去。」（樣本乙），最長的句子則有25個字：「兒童節目有卡通片，有魔術表演，還有『動物世界』和『小朋友天地』。」（樣本甲），二者相差21個字。整體來說，樣本甲和樣本丙的句子較長，樣本乙的句子較短。

句子的長短和句子的內容多寡有關，長句子的內容自然會多一點。從語言學習的發展來看，年紀愈大的兒童，可以運用的句子愈長。根據美國的Donna E. Norton觀察和統計，西方6至7歲的兒童說話的平均句長是7.5個詞。（Karen D'Angelo Bromley，1992）中國的朱曼殊（靳洪剛，1994）曾以詞為單位，統計了六歲兒童說話的平均句長為8.39個詞。現代漢語固然有單音節的詞語，但複音節的詞語更多，也更常用，所以，8.39個詞該有十多個字。香港的小學一年級學生一般是六至七歲的兒童，讓他們在語文課上多學一些含字量較多的句子，看來是較能配合兒童語言發展的規律的，故此，小學一年級語文課本中句子教學的材料固然

可以包括較短的句子，但也應因就兒童語言發展的變化，多選取較長的句子，藉以引導學生表情達意時嘗試運用更長的句子，以表達更充實和更豐富的內容。

3. 句類分佈

下表為三套課本句式學習句類分佈的統計資料：

（表三）

	學期	句數	陳述句	疑問句	祈使句	感歎句
樣本甲	上	28	24（85.7%）	3（10.7%）	1（3.6%）	0（0%）
	下	25	18（72%）	3（12%）	3（12%）	1（4%）
樣本乙	上	17	13（76.5%）	0（0%）	1（5.9%）	3（17.6%）
	下	15	13（86.7%）	2（13.3%）	0（0%）	0（0%）
樣本丙	上	20	18（90%）	1（5%）	0（0%）	1（5%）
	下	25	20（80%）	2（8%）	1（4%）	2（8%）

在句類分佈方面，三套課本都有陳述句、疑問句、祈使句和感歎句四類句子，不過都以陳述句為主，其間陳述句和非述句的比例編排差距不大，以整學年計算，樣本甲為78.9%：21.1%，樣本乙為81.6%：18.4%，樣本丙則為85%：15%。陳述句用來陳述事情，較為常用，在句類分佈中自然佔了較大的比例，不過，兒童多是好奇的，每每喜歡發問，疑問句的編排也得多留意。綜觀三套課本的非陳述句中，疑問句共有11句，較祈使句和感歎句多。下表是這11句疑問句的分佈資料：

（表四）

特指問	選擇問	是非問	反詰問
小鳥為什麼會飛？（樣本甲） 放假的時候，我們要做些什麼呢？（樣本丙）	為什麼你還不出來？（樣本丙） 小雨點，可不可以灑在我的雨衣上？（樣本甲） 小樹冷不冷？（樣本甲） 月亮上有沒有藍天？（樣本甲）	你吃過零食嗎？（樣本甲） 你知道我是誰嗎？（樣本甲） 我們可以進去玩嗎？（樣本乙） 這些書你全都看過嗎？（樣本丙）	太陽是你們叫出來的嗎？（樣本乙）

疑問句分特指問、選擇問、是非問和反詰問四類。比較三套課本疑問句的例子，樣本甲的例句有特指問、選擇問和是非問三類，樣本丙有特指問和是非問兩類，樣本乙則有是非問和反詰問兩類，可見樣本甲的疑問句功能較多，學生也可以從中學習到較多變化的表達疑問的方式。

反詰問是四類疑問句中較艱深的一類，小學一年級學生學習時可能會有困難，樣本甲和樣本丙都沒有這類反詰問的例子。樣本乙的「太陽是你們叫出來的嗎？」（一下第十課《誰把太陽叫出來（下）》）是11句疑問句中唯一的一句反詰問，課本的句式學習部分，原來並沒有把句子當作反詰句處理，只是當作一般的選擇問來處理，但檢視課文，在故事描述的語境下，毫無疑問，這是一句反詰問，並非選擇問。把反詰問的例子作選擇問來讓學生學習，並不是適當的安排。

4. 句型變化

句型的分類很多，本文只就「把」字句和常用的複句兩方面作簡略的討論。

(1)「把」字句

「把」字句和「被」字句是兩種常見的特殊句式，三套課本都只有「把」字句而沒有「被」字句。下表是三套課本中的「把」字句：

（表五）

樣本甲	請你	把	小的給我。
	媽媽	把	襪子夾在繩子上。
	我們就	把	小青蛙放了吧！
樣本乙	我們	把	氣球送給小男孩。
樣本丙	太陽	把	光明送到大地上。
	小花貓	把	碗碟打破了。

「把」字句是從句子結構形式著眼的分類，教學時，固然可以單就這句式的結構特點作分析，但也可以進一步就句子表達的內容、意義作分析。事實上，在相同的「把」字句形式下，可以表達不同的語氣。樣本甲的「媽媽把襪子夾在繩子上。」、樣本乙的「我們就把氣球送給小男孩。」、樣本丙的「太陽把光明送到大地上。」和「小花貓把碗碟打破了。」四句，從句類來看，都是陳述句。樣本甲的「請你把小的給我。」和「我們就把小青蛙放了吧！」兩句，則是祈使句的請求。句型和句類相互結合，句子式樣的變化更多，學生能學到的表達方法也就更多樣化了。

(2) 複句

一般來說，複句表達事物較繁複、多樣化的關係，複句所包含的內容和意思都比單句多，學生能運用複句，也表示了他們能掌握較複雜的事物的能力。在三套課本中，樣本甲的複句最多，有23句，樣本丙有9句，樣本乙只有3句，差別實在很大。

在樣本中的二十多句複句中，以並列關係為主，其中又以「表示同類事物的並列，或者表示兩件事情的並存」（胡裕樹，1992）為主，例如：「你寫字，我也寫字。」和「哥哥走，我也走。」都表示兩個人做同樣的事情；「火車一邊跑，一邊叫。」和「晶晶一面找，一面叫。」則表示同一人物同時做的兩件事兩句的並列關係雖然相同，但分別用兩組不同的關聯詞連繫：「……一邊……一邊……」和「……一面……一面……」，學生可從中學習句式的替換。

「課室裏，有桌椅，有黑板。」、「書包裏有鉛筆，有橡皮，還有尺子和書本。」、「兒童節目有卡通片，有魔術表演，還有『動物世界』和『小朋友天地』。」和「洋娃娃有黑頭髮，還有大眼睛和高鼻子。」這幾句，都是表達某事物所有的東西，不過並不是運用單一的句式，而是交替運用了「……有……有……」和「……有……還有……」的句式，這句式的變化可以引導學生學習句式的運用。

「我喜歡看卡通片，不喜歡看『動物世界』。」和「那不是橋，是彩虹。」兩句，是「表示兩件事情的對立」（胡裕樹，1992）的並列，「……喜歡……，不喜歡……」和「……不是……是……」都是既常用，又易於學習的式樣，學生可以很容易由此學習並列的複句關係。

四．小結

在比較三套課本的句子教學材料中，可以看到不同的教材在句子教學上的編排差異很大，在句式數量、句子長短、句類分佈和句型變化四方面，僅句類分佈的差異較小，其他幾項的差異都很大。教師依這些教材進行句子教學，教學內容的份量和程度差異自然相當大。兒童由幼稚園升上小學一年級，學習的能力和基礎相差不會很大，但他們開始語文科聽說讀寫的訓練時，在跟聽說讀寫都有密切關係的句子學習上，因為受到內容和變化差異都很大的材料編排的影響，學習的差距很易就會形成。面對這問題，教師在運用課本中的句子教學材料時，不妨先了解這些教材的編排情況，多參閱其他教材，調節句子教學的內容重點和份量，把句子教學做得更好。

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(Received: 8.9.00, accepted 11.10.00, revised 11.11.01)

Kindergarten Teachers' Rating Of Children's Social Competence and Strategies They Use to Guide Appropriate Behaviour

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The objectives of this study were to examine (i) behavioral differences in popular and unpopular children; (ii) the ability of kindergarten teachers to identify children with peer interaction difficulties; and (iii) strategies teachers use to guide appropriate social behaviour in the kindergarten classroom. Forty-eight 4-5 year-olds completed sociometric interview. Eight children including two Popular, two Rejected, two Average and two Controversial were observed during free play. Popular children had good social skills; they were able to initiate and maintain peer contact, communicated clearly and were co-operative. On the other hand, Rejected children were more physically and verbally aggressive with peers and showed low levels of co-operative behaviour. Teachers had some difficulties to identify the social status of children in their class, suggesting that they placed more emphasis on academic development than social development. They did not typically interact with children during free play. However, they occasionally tried to enhance the cognitive complexity of children's play. The implication of these findings for teacher-training are discussed.

幼稚園老師對兒童的社交能力之評量及適當的輔導方法

本文旨在探究i)幼稚園內受歡迎與被拒絕的兒童之行為差異; ii)幼稚園老師對於辨別兒童與兒童之間難於彼此互動的能力; 及iii)老師在課室引導兒童適當社交行為的策略。 48位四至五歲的兒童獲邀完成了面談, 而其中8位兒童被選為觀察對象: 包括了2 位受歡迎的兒童、2位被拒絕的兒童、 2位表現平均的兒童和2位表現較爭議性的兒童。 受歡迎的兒童有良好的社交技巧, 他/她們能展開和維持與同伴的接觸、具清楚的溝通能力和表現合作的行為。相反地, 被拒絕的兒童愛用言語和身體攻擊同伴, 並有不合作的行為表現。教師對於辨別兒童在課室內之社會地位表示有些困難, 因教師們較著重兒童學術發展多於社交發展。兒童在自由活動的時段內, 教師沒有與兒童互動, 但她們也偶然地嘗試提升兒童遊戲的複雜認知能力。有關教師培訓會從結果中顯示出來。

Introduction

The impetus for this study stems from a concern for children who need more help in social skills and whose social behavior are at-risk for peer relationship problems and who need to be identified and supported. Children who are rejected by their peers may be in greatest need of social skills interventions. Teachers in kindergarten can use a systematic method to improve children's social skills as early as possible.

Background

The ability to develop social relationships with peers has long been regarded as one of the most important development tasks of childhood (Hartup, 1989; Jewett, 1992; McClellan & Katz, 1992). Children's behaviours that lead to social acceptance or rejection by peers may be the result of children's early social and emotional experiences which occur in the context of families or schools. Research indicates that the

quality of parent-child relationship plays an influential role in the development of children's relation with peers and that there is a relationship between child-rearing practices, the development of children's social competence (Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Parke, MacDonald, Beitel, & Bhavnagri, 1988). Children whose parents are warm and consistently enforce rules are more likely to be socially accepted by peers than those whose parents are rejecting, angry, or uninvolved (MacDonald & Parke, 1984; Putallaz, 1987).

Social competence can be defined as 'the ability to implement developmentally-appropriate social behaviours that enhance one's interpersonal relationships without causing harm to anyone' (Schneider, 1993:19). The 'ability to implement' implies that competence requires an individual to be able to actually display the behaviour. But it does not mean that competence is exactly equivalent to behaviour. For example, if an individual is capable of forming friendship with others, he is still competent because he has the ability to implement the behaviours. However, if an individual who has a mental map of how friendship is formed, but is unable to translate this knowledge into practice, one cannot be considered socially competent.

Social competence can be defined in terms of endorsement by the peer group or society at large automatically assigns a premium to social behaviours directed at group acceptance or popularity. It also implies 'the social skills that children have the ability to accomplish' (Schneider, 1993:19). Children can be judged whether they can grasp a certain skill be observing their behaviour. For example, children can be observed how they play and accomplish a task with others cooperatively and respond to other people's attitude.

In the last twenty years, many researchers have recognized the importance of peers in the developmental process. They have explored the correlates of popularity in peer groups (Coie and Kupersmidt, 1983; Dodge, 1983; Ladd, 1983; Masters & Furman, 1981; Putallaz, 1983; Renshaw & Asher, 1983; Rubin & Daniels-Bierness, 1983; Vaughn & Waters, 1981). Young children at play are learning to get along with people. Moore (1981) suggests that 'learning to get along with others, is a major social development for young children'. Indeed the social skills involved in making friends and maintaining a consistently stable friendship are among the most important social abilities a child will ever acquire (C. D.C., 1993: 14).

Social competence with peers can be with angles 'the behaviour that reflects successful social functioning with peers....the child is popular and effective in her impact on peers and ...sensitive to communications from peers' (Howes, 1987b: 253). A popular child is one who can establish some contacts or have initiation with others, interact with peers in a positive and cooperative manner, demonstrate a variety of interactions skills such as sharing, respecting the wishes of playmate, responding to others' greetings and questions, offering information, and inviting participation. If one shows this kind of behaviour, one will become popular and more socially competent.

Although the acquisition of social skills is very significant during early childhood, these skills are rarely taught systematically in Hong Kong kindergartens. Teachers tend to reinforce quiet and obedient classroom behaviour. Children are rarely given specific instruction on how to cope with interpersonal activities such as making friends, handling disagreements, and dealing with stress. A child whose interpersonal coping skills are deficient is less likely to seek help at an early stage because of the view that social abilities are viewed culturally as a function of "personality". Most people will dichotomize a child as socially competent or incompetent.

We, as early childhood educators, can help foster young children's social competence with peers in school. Teachers can play the role of a facilitator or advisor to promote children's competence with peers and mediate peer interactions in the classroom. Research has shown that teachers can guide young children's social development, including their peer interactions, and stresses that the teachers can be active mediators of children's social competence (Edwards, 1986; Hazen, Black, & Fleming-Johnson, 1984; Kostelnik, Stein, Whiren, & Soderman, 1988; Ladd, 1984; Mize, Ladd, & Price,1985). "Children's peer relations will refer to children's efforts to interact with agemates" (Ladd, 1989:5). Social skill, among other skills, is one of the most important components of a child 's education. Therefore, teachers "should support children as they try to establish friendly relations with peers and help them increase their chances for success" (Kostelnik et al.,1988, p.349).

If experienced and trained teachers working with young children in preschool demonstrate a positive acceptance of

each child at an early stage, this can help children discover and appreciate their own uniqueness at a later period of schooling (C. D. C., 1996). Teachers should be able to construct appropriate social learning environments and design related activities for young children to help instil in children the concept that each person is a unique individual; to acquire self-awareness, and to learn about the immediate community.

Methodology

Through observations of children, the behaviour of popular and unpopular children can be differentiated. By observing children' behaviour revealed from play with various instruments, such as sociometric interviews, checklists...etc., teachers can identify children with peer interaction difficulties. Observations of teachers would reflect the strategies they use to guide children's appropriate social behaviour in the kindergarten classroom.

The Observations of Children

Through a direct observation and a time sampling observation strategies, 2 classes of 48 children in Lower Class (K.2) aged 4-5 were observed individually or in groups of children in random order during free play activities in their classrooms. Direct observation was conducted on children twice weekly in a three-month period from March to May. By then, children would have become acquainted with one another and it would be easier to observe and record their behaviour. From the observations, their social interaction and the strategies they engaged with their peers in the free play activities would be detailed. Observational data was recorded throughout free-play time. Their social competence could be assessed.

The time sampling observation procedure, arranged to cover 2 classes of 24 children in each of the class, was adapted from a system of Howes (1988), modified from Parten (1943). Children 's social behaviours and play complexity were observed and recorded at the same time. A child was observed for a 60-sec interval each for three 30-minute sessions. When the child was not engaged in any activity, unoccupied behaviour was coded. Solitary play was coded when the child was playing alone. Parallel play was coded when the child and partners engaged in a same similar activity but did not have eye contact or engage in social interaction. While simple social play was coded when the child and partner engaged in the same or similar activity and directed social bids to each other such as smiles, offered or received an object. Complementary and reciprocal play was coded when the child and partner engaged in social play with a turn-taking structure and role reversal. Social pretend play was coded when the child and partner engaged in fantasy play.

The observation of children's play behaviour included the following areas, namely: play initiation cooperative response, negative response and aggressive response, etc. Initiations included "verbally accepting a play invitation', receiving an object', and beginning to play with the initiator. Negative response included 'ignoring or verbally rejecting a play initiator,' 'leaving', and 'turning away'. Aggressive responses included 'physically aggression', ' hitting', and 'pushing the initiator'. Through the use of direct observation, children's social play and behaviour can be seen and meticulously recorded. This would provide more meaningful data and offered a myriad of possibilities for understanding the dynamics of children's social play conducted in a low structure area.

Behavioral Observation of Teachers

A time-sampling procedure was used to observe 4 class teachers' behaviour on how they involved interaction with children during free play. As social competence did not grow in itself, teachers could act as mediators to help children develop and acquire social skills and competence by providing socially mediated learning experiences. Teachers could be observed on how they facilitated children's appropriate use of materials, promoted children's positive interaction, and intervened if child-child conflict developed.

Four of the teachers were observed on an alternating basis for 60-second intervals, with a 20-sec recording period following each observation interval. A structured checklist was used to record the procedure and resulted in a total of 90 recorded observations. The observations on teachers' behaviour would give us a picture that what they did and how they interacted with children in the classroom could help promote children's social competence. The checklist looked into the interaction between teachers and children during children's free play. Teachers' behaviours were categorized into 3 levels, i.e. no interaction, interacts with individual, and

interacts with groups. Observations of techers' behaviour in terms of responding to and initiating talk with children affect the development of children's social competence. These would easily reveal how they acted as mediators toward children to provide instruction in strategies for social learning, scaffolded instruction, and how they provided coaching and opportunities for both individualized and cooperative learning.

Sociometric measures

Besides the observations of children and teachers, an interview with children using the Peers Rating Scale and sociometric methods would be used as the major measurement tools of this research. Individual interviews would be conducted with each child who had parental consent to participate. A letter was sent to the respective parents to seek their approval to allow their children to participate in the interview. Moreover, children's verbal consent was requested as well. The interviews, took about 10 minutes for each child.

In order to minimize the cognitive demand of the task and to ensure that the children made choices with the whole class in mind, they were presented with pictures of each classmate in a randomized order. Each child was interviewed by using a picture board sociometric nomination procedure. Individual interviews were arranged in a private room familiar to the child. Each child was asked to indicate three children they liked a lot and enjoyed playing with in their school. Then this child was also asked to indicate three children they did not enjoy playing with at school. When the child was asked who he liked to play with, he was shown a standardized facial expression (with a broad smile) accompanied by vocal affectionate cues and high voice for 'like'. Frowns and a gruff voice were used when pronouncing 'don't like'. Positive and negative nomination measures were added up to identify each child's social status. Then the peer-status groups were formed from the nomination scores. Children scoring higher than the median on positive nominations and lower than the median on negative nominations were considered popular. Those scoring higher than the median on both nominations were considered controversial. Those scoring higher than the median on negative nominations, but lower than the median on positive nominations were considered rejected. Those scoring lower than the median on both nominations were considered isolated. Children who did not fall into these groups were considered average in peer status. With this nomination procedure, the sociometric status of children could be obtained. Nominations would be carried out from all the participating children in the classroom. According to Schneider (1993), the sociometric choice and nomination technique would help to identify children who were popular and were rejected.

Teacher Questionnaire Interviews

When the interview was completed, the 4 class teachers of the children, who were blind to the results of the nomination and the sociometric interview, were requested to complete a questionnaire. In the questionnaire, class teachers were firstly requested to write or indicate the names of 3 children on each category who they thought were most popular, least popular, and neglected in the class. Secondly, they were requested to respond to various scenario such as when a child wanted to enter the group during free play, when a child was left out in the classroom corner, and when children engaged in fantasy play, etc. Teachers were asked whether they would intervene in each situation or not. If they would, what they would do and / or say in the situation. These were designed to tap teachers' perceptions of their role as mediators of children's peer relations and their perceptions of children's social skill. The questionnaire was designed to see whether the teachers were able to judge children 's social competence accurately.

Findings

Summary Reviews

Observations of Children

Observations were conducted on children during their play in different classroom corners in order to get the target children for further observation. Some children were found to be cooperative, interactive, communicative, and willing to share. They used different ways and methods to enter into play situations. Some behaved positively, but some did not. When conflict arose between children, sometimes teachers would come intervene and help to solve problems. But the teachers rarely interacted directly with children during their play except when dispute arose.

Nomination and peer 's ratings:

Of 144 positive nominations in 2 classes, 109 were to same-sex peers (75.6%). Of 144 negative nominations, 85were to opposite-sex peers (59%). Gender was a significant moderator of sociometric nominations: Children made positive nominations for their own gender, and negative nominations across gender (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Positive and negative nominations of children from peers in Class A and Class B

		No. of nominated children		Total No. of student	Percentage (%)
		Male	Female		
Positive Nomination	Class A	33	19	52 \	75.6%
	Class B	29	28	57 /	
Negative Nomination	Class A	20	20	40 \	59 %
	Class B	32	13	45 /	

Table 1A & 1B clearly shows children's social status as determined by the Goldman Method (Goldman et al., 1980): 4 children (8.3%) and 6 children (12.5%) were classified as popular in Class A & Class B respectively; 3 children (6.2%) in Class A and 5 (10%) in Class B were categorised as rejected; 3 children (6.2%) and 2 (4.1%) were in the controversial group in Class A and Class B respectively. 10 children (20.8%) in Class A and 9 (18.7%) in Class B were as average, and 4 children were classified as neglected (8.3%) in Class A and 2 (4.1%) in Class B. Overall, most of the children were classified as the average group (24.6%) among the nomination from peers. In the popular, rejected, controversial and average categories, children showed similar social status in the two classes.

Name of Nominatee	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X
Gender	m	m	f	f	m	f	m	m	f	f	m	m	m	f	m	m	m	f	f	m	m	f	f	m
Nominator																								
Child A		/		x					x	/						x	/							
Child B			x	x		x	/										x			/		/		
Child C		x								/				/	x		x							
Child D		x						x		/		x						/	/					
Child E								/							x	/	/		x		x			
Child F		x		/										/			x	/						
Child G		/				x				x		/		/	x									
Child H	x					x		x			/							/						
Child I					/										x	x	x	/						
Child J								x	/			/	/				x			x				
Child K									/		x				x	x	/							
Child L		x							/	/					x	x		/						
Child M								/				/			x	x		/						
Child N		x						x		/							x			/				
Child O		/						/			x	x		x			/							
Child P	x							/										x		/		x		/
Child Q		/			/		/					x	x			x								
Child R									/						/	x	x	x						
Child S		x	/					x		/							x							
Child T						x		/							x	/			x					
Child U					/							x	x			/			/	x				
Child V				/	/								x			x	x							
Child W				/				x	/								x		/					x
Child X								x					x				x							
Total ☺	0	5	2	6	1	4	7	2	8	4	2	2	2	3	0	4	1	1	2	1	2	0	1	1
Score ☹	2	6	1	2	3	1	7	0	2	1	3	3	4	1	1	5	1	1	3	1	2	0	0	1
Overall status	A	C	A	A	R	P	C	A	A	P	A	A	A	P	R	C	R	P	A	N	A	N	N	N

Positive median: 2 Mean=3
Negative median: 2
Abbreviation of social status

P=Popular
R=Rejected
A=Average
C=Controversial
N=Neglected

Name of Nominatee	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X
Gender	f	f	f	m	m	m	f	f	f	m	f	f	m	m	m	m	m	f	m	f	f	m	f	m
Nominator																								
Child A					x			/	x								x	/						
Child B					x	/													y				x	
Child C	/																				x	x	x	
Child D	x					/	x		x									/				/		
Child E					/											x	x		x					
Child F			x						/	x							x							
Child G		/							x		/					x	x	/						
Child H	/								x						x	x								
Child I	/	/	x						x											/			x	
Child J				x						x											/			x
Child K				x	x	/			/		x												x	
Child L		/	x			/		x	x														/	
Child M						/													x	x	x	/		
Child N	x			/	/											/	x		x					
Child O	x			/			x		x		/													
Child P					x				x														x	
Child Q			/	/		x	x			x														
Child R				x															x				x	
Child S			x	x					x															
Child T	/		x					/	/	/	x												x	
Child U		/		/	/			/	/		x								x				x	
Child V	x			/	x		x																	
Child W	x	x	x																					
Child X	/								x						x		x							
Total ☺	6	2	1	9	1	6	1	2	4	1	0	3	3	0	8	1	2	3	2	1	0	1	2	4
Score ☹	5	1	5	1	7	1	1	3	4	1	2	2	0	0	2	3	5	1	3	3	2	1	8	1
Overall status	C	A	R	P	R	P	N	A	C	R	A	A	P	N	A	R	A	P	A	R	A	P	A	P

Positive median: 2 Mean = 3
Negative median: 2

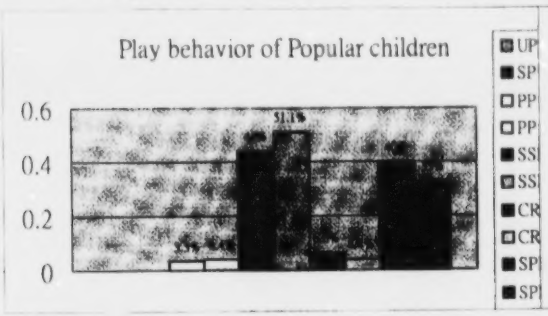
Abbreviation of social status
P=Popular
R=Rejected
A=Average
C=Controversial
N=Neglected

Observations on Children 's Behaviour

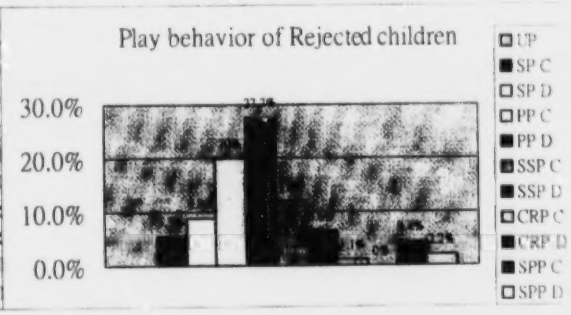
Children were wandering between learning centre areas, to interact with classmates, and to play with available toys and other objects they desired. The percentage of targeted children's play behaviour during indoor play periods across the six codes was shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Each play behavior of children during indoor free play period

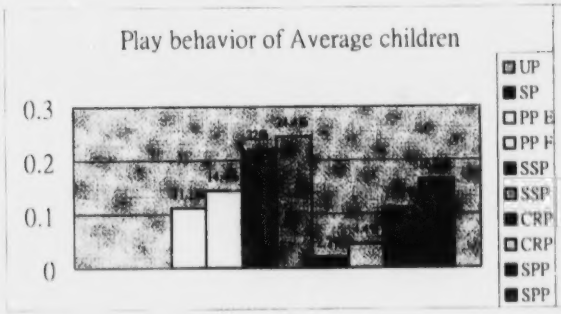
A = Popular child in class A
B = Popular child in class A



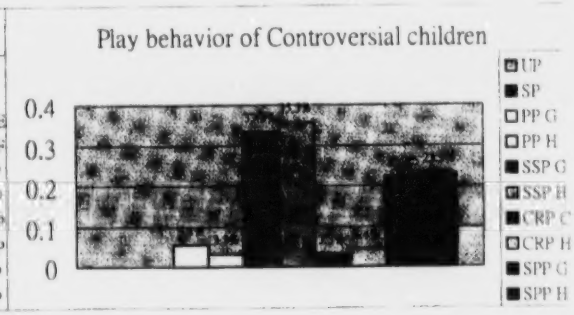
C = Rejected child in class A
D = Rejected child in class B



E = Average child in class A
F = Average child in class B



G = Controversial child in class A
H = Controversial child in class B

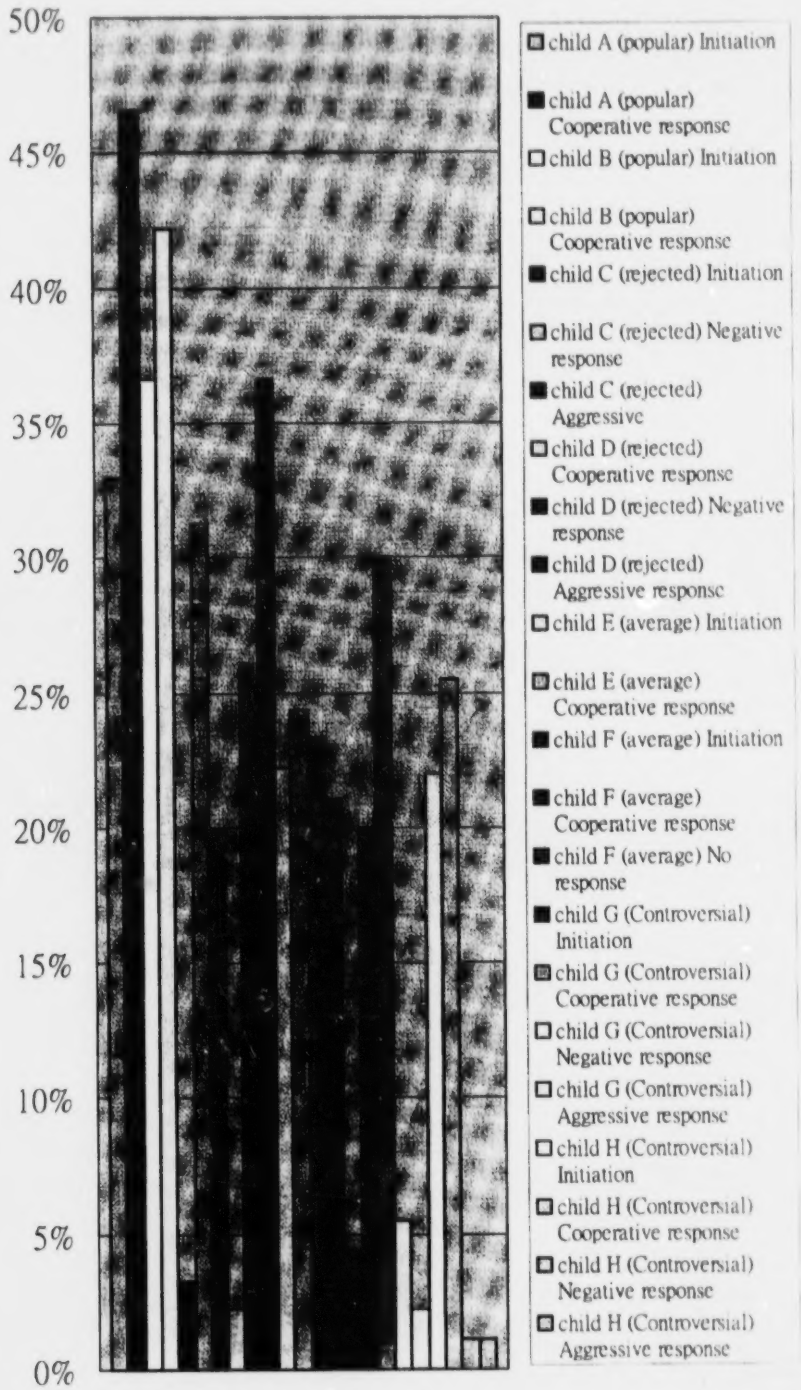


Abbreviations:

UP ~ Unoccupied play
SP ~ Solitary play
PP ~ Parallel play
SSP ~ Simple social play
C&RP ~ Complementary & Reciprocal play
SPP ~ Social pretend play

To examine the result of children's social behaviours with peers, each child play behaviours was shown in Figure 3.

Figure 3 :The peer social behaviour of each child



Behavioural observation of Teachers

The relationship between teacher behaviour and the peer interaction of children was shown in Figure 4 & 5 below. The table showed teachers tended to interact more frequently with children who played less often with peers or who were in conflict, while leaving alone children who were involved with peers.

Figure 4. Summary Table of Class Teacher Behavior During Free play Periods

Teacher	Behavior	Class A		Class B	
		T1	T2	T3	T4
No interaction	Watches children	30%	28.8%	41.1%	25.5%
	Talks to colleagues	8.8%	6.6%	8.8%	7.7%
	Sits or does other things	2.2%	0%	7.7%	3.3%
Interacts with Individual	Responds to child's questions	4.4%	7.7%	2.2%	5.5%
	Teacher initiates interaction: chats with child	12.2%	16.6%	15.5%	17.7%
	Teacher initiates interaction: talks about on-going activity	16.6%	14.4%	6.6%	8.8%
	Responds when problems arise	3.3%	2.2%	1.1%	2.2%
Interacts with Group	Responds to children's question	4.4%	4.4%	5.5%	7.7%
	Teacher initiates interaction: chats with children	8.8%	5.5%	6.6%	7.7%
	Teacher initiates interaction: talks to children about on-going activity	7.7%	8.8%	8.8%	10%
	Teacher intervenes when problems arise	3.3%	4.4%	3.3%	4.4%
	Teacher facilitates play: spontaneously gets involved in play	3.3%	1.1%	0%	2.2%

Figure 5. Distribution of Class Teachers' Behaviour During Freeplay Period

Teachers' Behaviour	Percentage
Interacts with Groups	26%
Interacts with individuals	33%
No interaction with children	41%

Teacher Questionnaire Interviews

The four teachers in both classes, who were blind to the results of the nomination and the sociometric interview, were not fully able to identify the 3 children on each category, especially on the neglected category. The following table (Figure 6) showed the number of children that teachers were able to identify them in most popular, least popular and neglected categories.

Figure 6. Number of children in 3 categories identified by 4 class teachers

No. of children	Teachers (T1)	(T2)	(T3)	(T4)
Children				
Popular	3	2	2	1
in Three				
Rejected	1	1	0	0
Categories				
Neglected	0	0	0	0

Discussion

After the observations conducted in different learning corners during children's free play, it was found that some children were cooperative, interactive, communicative, and willing to share while they were playing with their peers. Children 's behaviour revealed that those who played cooperatively were well liked by peers, whereas those who engaged in rough play and aggressiveness were most disliked and rejected. Children who interacted with peers in a positive and cooperative manner were more often liked by peers and highly rated by teachers. On the contrary, children whose interactions were primarily negative (aggressive, arguing) were most likely to be disliked by classmates and rated as hostile by kindergarten teachers (Ladd & Price, 1987; Ladd, Price & Hart 1988).

Sometimes children were found observed to be using different ways and methods to enter into play situations. Some behaved positively, but some did not. They also showed their concern and nurtured others in their play. Some children were able to structure their play, others were less structured and they used imaginative, symbolic representation, monologue in their play activities. It was noted that children who engaged in sophisticated role play and make-believe play are better liked by peers and rated as socially competent children by teachers. These finding are consistent with the research of Howes (1988) who revealed that 'children who engage in mature forms of make-believe involving cooperative roles are better liked by peers and rated by teachers as more sociable than classmates who engage in less mature forms of play' (Maxwell & Eller, 1994: 56).

The relationship among the issues, strategies, and outcomes of children's conflict was explored. When children encountered conflicts involving objects, they tended to involve physical resistance such as control of objects or physical space. When children feel their territory was threatened, they would have automatic responses such as grabbling, hitting and pushing (Constable, 1987: 106). Children began to use verbal protests more frequently in conflicts involve physical resistance (Ross and Conant, 1992). However, conciliatory behaviours associated with peaceful outcomes and continued interaction following ended the conflict while 'physical domination often led to ending the interaction (Wheeler, 1994). 'Children were capable of resolving conflicts on their own' (Killen and Turiel, 1991).

From the observations conducted on teachers during free play, teachers rarely intervened in children's peer play except to settle problems or conflicts. Teachers appeared to be doing little in the classroom to actively mediate children's relationship and interactions with their peers. Observations on teachers' behaviour were recorded in Fig 1. Evidence showed that children's competence with peers could be promoted with teachers ' mediation in peer interaction in the classroom (File, 1993: 351).

The importance of the teachers' active role in facilitating children's social competence with peers was emphasized. Appropriate intervention strategies and teachers' skill help facilitate children's competence with peers. Evidence showed that teachers often acted as an active mediator of children's peer relationships and interaction would enhance children's social competence which was supported by Edwards, 1986; Hazen, Black, & Fleming-Johnson, 1984; Kostelnik, Stein, Whiren, & Soderman, 1988; Ladd, 1984, Mize, Ladd & Price, 1985. Vygotsky (1978) interpreted that 'interaction between the child and more highly skilled others is the first for learning, if guidance in skills and understanding are provided to the child, one will eventually internalize them (File, 1993:354). That is, effective assistance or guidance can be provided within the child's zone of proximal development (ZPD) especially when teachers or more advanced peers support and nurture social skills, children are in the process of developing. This

support is referred to as 'assisted performance' (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988) and 'guided participation' (Rogoff, 1990).

However, it appears that in practice, teachers either do not regard themselves as important facilitators of children's peer relationships. They need help to develop teaching strategies for guiding children to more socially competent behaviour (File, 1993:64)

Although a child's social competence naturally improves with age. Getting along well with children requires a number of specific interpersonal skills. Through observing children at play, several broad categories have been identified in which children become socially adept with peers and become socially competent. First, a child must learn to initiate and approach other children in a manner that encourages a positive response. A variety of interaction skills -such as sharing and respecting the wishes of playmates-are required to keep a social exchange going for any length of time (i.e. to maintain positive relationship). In addition, the ability to solve conflicts is also a major social feat that a child must master. To practice such skills, he needs plenty of opportunities to encounter with other children at schools or in play groups. He may also practise other forms of social skills by trial-and -error. Or he can learn these skills simply by watching and observing.

When a child wants to approach other peers, she encounters different skills in initiating contact with peers. Generally speaking, their skills can be observed in three distinctive categories: i) establishing contact during their play which includes: make an approach to another, smile and speak happily, understanding of emotional expressions, coordinate play and cooperate with group needs, peer group entry strategies, and communicative skills, ii) maintaining positive relationships and iii) resolving conflicts which would lead them to be accepted by peers and to become popular and more socially competent.

Teaching Strategies for Facilitating Peer relationship

Teachers who want to help children gain social acceptance can use a Vygotkian approach to facilitate children's relationship with their peers. They need to have three competencies: i) having a thorough knowledge of important social skills children need in order to interact successfully, ii) having an inclusive knowledge of individual children's abilities (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988), and iii) having a range of effective teaching strategies to use in their classroom.

Thorough knowledge of social skills:

This kind of essential skills can be categorized into the tasks of initiating peer interaction (e.g. the entry into a play group, entering to an on-going play, adapting unsuccessful entry strategies), maintaining relationships (e.g. interacting prosocially), and resloving conflicts (e.g. avoiding aggression, seeking a compromise) (Asher, Renshaw, & Hymel, 1982). These skills can be valuable resources to teachers in extending their knowledge in this area. Corsaro, 1981, 1985; Hazen et al., 1984 state that successful and unsuccessful social strategies children use can be a valuable resource in preservice and inservice education in extending teachers' knowledge (File, 1993).

Knowledge of individual children 's abilities

Teachers, when teaching child within the zone of proximal development, must know how much and what type of support an individual child may need and how far the child can be challenged without becoming astounded in a particular situation. Teachers should be provided with skills in observing and tracking children's behaviour and developmental progress. There is a risk that the interventions of teachers who are without sufficient knowledge of individual's abilities, will not fall within the child's zone of proximal development.

Having a range of effective teaching strategies:

When children need to participate with peers on their own, well-timed teacher support and well-timed withdrawal is needed, this can help children to construct new knowledge and skills which would enhance children's social competence.

Conclusion

In this study, the observations conducted both on teachers and children's behaviour, have revealed the significance of the teachers' role as mediators interacting with children during freeplay in the classroom. Although the observational and scenario data indicated that the teachers still had interactions with children, an awareness of lags in peer interaction skills for children was indicated. Besides, what did this study tell

us about the relationship between teacher-child interaction and children's play with peers ? Consistent with the research of DeKlyen and Odom (1989) and Shores et al. (1976), there was a negative correlation between frequency of teacher-child interaction and children's social play level. This seems to imply that in some way more complex social play corresponds to teachers being relatively uninvolved with the children. They are more likely to support the cognitive aspects of play in their intervention. Perhaps, it is the case that teacher intervention, as it seems to occur most often, tends to draw children's attention more to the cognitive aspects of play than to the social aspects. Teacher intervention, whether focused on peer interactions, can facilitate social play remains unanswered. The study does indicate that more detailed examination of the nature of teacher-child interaction is important for future research.

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Acknowledgment

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to Dr. Nirmala Rao whom I am deeply indebted so much for her invaluable professional advice of this study. She has very kindly and generously spent so much of her precious time in discussion with me. Not only am I most indebted to her these, my hearful gratiude also goes to her for all concern, support and encouragement.

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(Received: 12.9.01, accepted 1.11.01, revised 12.11.01)

資訊科技與幼兒教育：個案研究報告

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本研究的目的是透過設計及實踐資訊科技教育活動，了解其教育功能。本個案研究為期一年，共有十位教師及七十五名學生參與。研究成果是三個應用資訊科技主題活動，他們是：(1)製作數碼圖書，(2)製作數碼活動記錄冊，(3)製作數碼短片分享行為表現。研究結果顯示資訊科技創造豐富的學習機會，提供豐富的教學功能及扮演授權賦能的角色。

關鍵詞：資訊科技教育、幼兒教育

Information Technology and Early Childhood Education: A Case Study Report

The aim of the case study is to design thematic learning activities for understanding and analyzing roles of IT for improving Learning & Teaching (L&T) of school education. This research involved 10 teachers and 75 learners in a one-year study. Three thematic activities were designed and implemented. They were: (1) digital book production, (2) digital activity record production, and (3) digital video clip production for sharing behavior of learners. Results of the study indicated that IT could play three roles in education. They are: (1) providing authentic learning opportunities, (2) enhancing teaching capability, and (3) empowering L&T activities.

Keyword: information technology in education, early childhood education

一、引言

香港的教育改革在踏進千禧年代正進行得如火如荼，尤以資訊科技教育為甚。本著與時並進的精神，香港的中學、小學、幼兒、特殊學校應用資訊科技發展教育的案例俯拾皆是，但是幼兒教育或基礎教育應否應用資訊科技仍然是一項具爭議的課題(Alliance for Childhood, 1999；黃毅英，2001)。美國一個幼兒組織－兒童聯盟(Alliance for Childhood)於一九九九年發表的研究報告指出，幼兒單純在電腦的虛擬世界中學習而缺乏親身的體驗，是違反幼兒學習原則的教學行為，會影響幼兒學習的成效。幼兒過早應用電腦進行學習，可能會減低兒童的創造力，亦可能會使兒童形成孤僻的性格，更可能會導致兒童被動地學習。但是，資訊科技的可塑性高、應用潛力大亦毋庸置疑(江紹祥、潘世榮，2000)。因此，研究幼兒教育如何利用資訊科技促進幼兒的健康成長，是一項刻不容緩的項目。本研究嘗試從實踐中總結經驗，更希望從案例經驗進行討論、反思，回應教育如何開拓資訊科技潛能，發展學習者在未來社會所需的基本特質。

學校教育的角色

隨著資訊社會的來臨，未來社會對僱員的要求是能獨立運作的個體，懂得表達自己及與別人溝通、合作，具靈活變通的能力和擁有豐富的創作意念(江紹祥、潘世榮，2000)。學校就是培養學習者上述能力的場所，教育最終的目的就是培養學習者自學應變的能力。從全球經濟趨向一體化的發展，觀察資訊社會對學校的需求，可察覺得到學校教育所扮演的角色具相當大的調整空間。智育是近代教育的重點，也是未來教育的要害，但是學習知識與學習怎樣去學習的關係將需要進一步探討及調適，藉此發展學習者獨立處事和靈活變通的能力。人類社會的演進不能單靠法律的規範，穩定的社會發展必須靠德育的培育和群育的發展。德育和群育在資訊年代更需要獲得重視，以培養學習者適應未來社會所需要

的溝通合作和尊重別人的特質。因此學校教育必須重視培養獨立自信、樂於溝通及勇於嘗試的人材。本個案研究希望通過應用資訊科技拓展幼兒教育的智育、德育和群育的工作，讓幼兒自小便習慣主動學習、尊重別人和樂於溝通。

資訊科技與幼兒教育

目前本港大部份提供幼兒教育的學校，應用資訊科技的主要工作層面是環繞在課程安排各類軟件輔助教學，其形式包括遊戲、練習甚至操練來協助幼兒學習知識。這樣的設計雖然能提供個別化的支援學習環境，亦能運用多媒體的圖像、文字、影像、聲音及動畫等刺激，吸引幼兒學習的興趣，但是形式較側重知識的傳遞，未能將資訊科技的應用結合到學習怎樣去學習及培養德育和群育的不同範疇。若要從資訊科技教育獲取良好的教學效果適應未來社會的需要，則必須從幼兒教育的本質安排融入的工作，藉此彰顯其教育效能。

教育家杜威(Dewey, 1976)主張幼兒和環境互動，互動是幼兒學習的基礎。杜威認為真正的教育應來自經驗，經驗必須是具意義的屬實活動，經驗能夠促進兒童的學習及發展。生態環境理論(ecological theory)的倡導者 Urie Bronfenbrenner 指出環境會影響兒童的發展(Thomas, 1992)。他們認為兒童作為一個有機個體會受到後天環境因素的影響，一個新的刺激或經驗可增加兒童知識的新內涵。當兒童的整體知識結構受到衝擊，兒童具整合調適的能力應付。根據幼兒心理學家皮亞傑(Piaget)的認知發展論(cognitive-development theory)所論述的認知行為建構，皮亞傑認為知識是個體透過與環境的互動，由個體對外在環境行動(action)而建立的(Piaget, 1961)。知識建構的過程必須包含三層要素，他們是：(1)個體必須要有先前知識；(2)個體必須主動地對外在環境產生行動；和(3)知識是個體透過一點一滴的反思(reflection)所建立(Inagaki, 1992)。因此幼兒的學習必需重視幼兒的參與及反思，若缺乏反思的引導，則就算是有操作的歷程，也未必能產生知識的建立。

因此教師可以設計教育情境來啟發兒童的學習及改變他們自己與環境之間的觀感(Spodek & Saracho, 1998)。教師因此不單必須具能力辨識兒童所具備的學習條件，教師亦必須具能力經營一個學習的環境促進兒童學習及了解自己。分散認知(distributed cognitions)的研究認為：智慧是超越個體的，智慧可以藉著各色各樣的互動方式來提昇，包括學習者與人的互動、與資源的互動及與環境的互動等，學習者可透過互動來思考、學習和解決問題(Bell & Winn, 2000)。因此，本研究嘗試將資訊科技教育應用的方向定位為支援智育、德育及群育發展的學習工具，通過學習者、教師與科技環境的互動來協助學習者從已有知識建構新知、啟發主動參與的學習精神及與其他學習者和教師建立相處之道(Brown, 1992; Schofield, Eurich-Fulcer & Britt, 1994)，發展以學習者為中心並以互動為本的學習模式。

二・研究目的

本研究的主要目的是希望透過實踐掌握資訊科技的教育功能，亦希望通過研究過程促進教師了解資訊科技如何協助提升教學質素。本研究的三項具體目標是：

[1] 設計教學活動運用資訊科技支援智育、德育及群育的發展，

[2] 了解資訊科技如何在支援智育、德育及群育發展的教育活動發揮作用，

[3] 分析其如何對教與學兩方面所產生的影響。

三・研究方法

本個案研分三個步驟進行，他們是：(1)按課程教育目標設計應用資訊科技的教學活動，(2)執行教學活動，(3)反思教學活動成效。研究為期一年，研究期間由研究員及專業導師進行校本教師培訓，全部十位教師一起參與，培訓時間共三十六小時。教師掌握基本資訊科技知識後按課程教育目標設計教學活動，活動設計訂定後由教師及職員合作製作教材，通過教材組織教學活動，並觀察幼兒的學習情況。教學活動完成後由全校教師反思總結教學活動成效。學校選取高班學生合共七十五人參與研究，學生已有一年應用電腦遊戲的經驗，而且在研究期間每星期進行三小時運用電腦進行小組學習活動。

四・研究結果

教學活動設計由教師主導，經歷數次反覆討論訂定，期間主要考慮的因素是如何運用資訊科技配合教育活動達致目標。教師訂定的應用案例共三項，他們是：(1)製作數碼圖書，(2) 製作數碼活動記錄冊，(3) 製作及運用數碼短片分享行為表現。表一展示應用資訊科技設計的教學活動詳情。

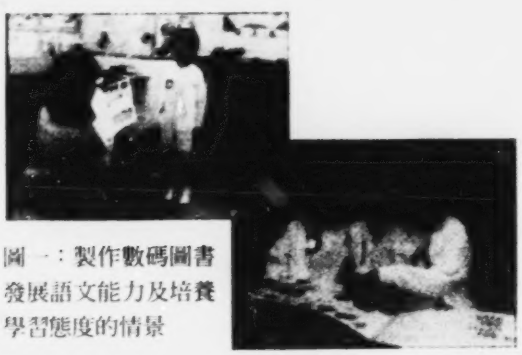
表一：應用資訊科技設計的教學活動詳情

	應用案例	教育目標	教學活動主題	資訊科技應用內容
1.	製作數碼圖書	發展語文能力及培養學習的態度	春天的景象	運用演示製作圖書 掃瞄圖像、錄製聲音、打印圖書
2.	製作數碼活動記錄冊	發展語文及表達能力	沙灘遊跡	運用試算表製作記錄冊 攝製數碼相片、運用中文手寫辨識板書寫
3.	製作及運用數碼短片分享行為表現	發展群性及培育德育	認識自己	錄製及編輯數碼短片

我們將會在本節展示應用案例的設計意念及實施教學活動的各項細節，包括討論教師的設計意念、運用資訊科技施教及學生的學習情況等。

應用案例一：製作數碼圖書

製作數碼圖書的設計意念是讓幼兒從小培養在資訊環境中嘗試組織整理資料，藉此培養幼兒主動學習的意識和態度。教師希望在這個應用案例觀察及了解這方面的可行性。活動首先讓幼兒進行為期兩週有關春天的主題活動，讓幼兒從收集資料及整理的過程中認識春天的景象、自然生態的活動和變化等。教師讓幼兒通過討論分享其對春天的認識，並將最深刻的印象繪畫成圖畫及運用句子描述情景或表達感受。教師收集同學的作品後，與同學一起掃瞄圖畫製作數碼版本存檔。然後請幼兒將自己創作的句子進行數碼錄音，製成數碼圖書。幼兒在進行數碼錄音時，能立刻聽到自己的錄音效果，亦能聆聽到其他同學的的表現。一些說話緊張而略帶口吃或說話中間附懶音的幼兒，聽到錄音效果後更主動要求重錄。由於數碼錄音操作方便，教師和同學均樂於完成重錄的工作。其中一位同學經過三次錄音，終能擺脫口吃的困擾，順暢地唸好自己的句子，全組同學頓時拍掌鼓勵，幼兒的表現展示豐盛的滿足感。製作完成後，教師播放數碼圖書與幼兒共同分享成果，幼兒亦可攜帶作品與家人一起分享圖書。為了增加閱讀人次，教師將數碼圖書列印存放在圖書角內讓幼兒自行取閱朗讀。圖一展示製作數碼圖書發展語文能力及培養學習態度的情景。



圖一：製作數碼圖書發展語文能力及培養學習態度的情景

應用案例二：製作數碼活動記錄冊

製作數碼活動記錄冊的設計意念是創造情景讓幼兒發展語文及表達能力。幼兒在生活中即開始學習說話，因此幼兒學習讀寫既是一種社化過程、亦有學習讀寫的動力(黃瑞琴，1997)。教師因此應提供幼兒讀寫的機會和情景，讓幼兒在互動溝通的過程中具目的地使用書面語及學習文字的表達方式。我們決定根據幼兒的經驗與興趣，製作以學習者為中心的校本教材，提供情景引導幼兒發展讀寫的能力。我們通過主題活動《沙灘遊跡》，帶領幼兒親身往海灘進行遊覽、觀察、訪問、實驗和遊戲等活動，讓兒童體驗海灘四周環境及設施，並將當日的各個活動運用數碼攝錄機拍攝記錄，教師回校後選擇數碼相片製作記錄冊。教師在運用電腦進行小組學習活動時，讓幼兒選取自己喜歡的照片，然後讓他們描述相片中的情景及說出相關的名詞，再鼓勵他們利用文字把記錄冊中相片的人物、四周環境運用文字作出介紹，並編輯成一套《沙灘遊跡》的數碼活動記錄冊。圖二展示製作數碼活動記錄冊發展語文及表達能力的情景。

圖二：製作數碼活動記錄冊發展語文及表達能力的情景

應用案例三：製作及運用數碼短片分享行為表現

群性發展是指幼兒學習社會生活中人們必須掌握和遵守的社會行為準則，而幼兒德育是幼兒群性發展教育的核心和導向力量(唐淑，1999)，是幼兒發展中重要一環。教師如能從一個實際的互動環境中，引導幼兒深入認識和反省，可使幼兒更真確地了解自己的行為表現，從而加以改善。教師運用資訊科技錄製及剪輯數碼短片，可因應幼兒個別發展，幫助他們從日常的行為作出檢討和處理，協助幼兒的群性及德性健康成長。因此，我們以班別為單位，安排教職員攝錄幼兒三星期的群體生活，選擇其中一些行為片段製作數碼短片，然後教師安排大組時間播放錄像，讓幼兒在自由討論的氣氛中分享短片。教師刻意彰顯良好的行為，引導反思負面行為的後果，使幼兒在一個關愛的環境氣氛，培養學習接納和尊重別人的態度，促進群育及德育的發展。

數碼短片選取的準則是引導幼兒反思的關鍵，短片按下列的準則選取：(1)內容是幼兒親身參與的群體活動。(2)攝製隊事前不預設選取的內容或對象，但會特別關注幼兒共同解決問題時的情景，內容選取以幼兒在真實環境的行為表現為依歸。(3)內容選取以能否協助幼兒認識自我、建立良好的溝通方法及健康成長為重點，選取透過校長及教師的客觀討論敲定，討論過程會比對及參考教師在日常教學所觀察到幼兒的行為表現及特質，討論會反覆估計短片播放後幼兒的反應，並注意事後跟進輔導的處理。圖三展示製作及運用數碼短片分享行為表現發展群性及培育德育的情景。

圖三：製作及運用數碼短片分享行為表現發展群性及培育德育的情景

五．討論

本研究在為期一年的時間進行了三個應用資訊科技的主題教學活動，他們是：數碼圖書製作、數碼活動記錄冊製作及數碼短片製作，活動範疇涉及智育、德育及群育等各方面。是次研究通過連串的教學活動，希望幼兒可以透過與環境的互動及點點滴滴的反思引導，提高學生學習素質；亦希望教師透過是次個案研究汲取新知及思考，提升學校教育素質。現將這兩方面的結果分析如下，並交代資訊科技所扮演的角色。

資訊科技所扮演的角色

研究結果顯示資訊科技在三個主題教學活動扮演三個角色，他們是：創造屬實(authentic)的學習機會(Shaffer & Resnick, 1999)，提供豐富的教學功能及扮演授權賦能(empowerment)的角色(江紹祥、潘世榮，2000)。

資訊科技提供屬實學習的機會

當幼兒從電腦演示播放聽到自己的聲音，看到自己的圖畫，並與其他同學的作品一起製成圖書出現，幼兒怎會不產生強大的成就感呢？因此幼兒會主動地往圖書角閱讀、甚至朗讀自己製作的圖書。資訊科技在此扮演一個提供屬實學習的機會，讓幼兒認真而專注地學習。由於大部份的製成品都有幼兒的參與，同時幼兒對製成品具真實的感覺，所以能提高其學習的主動性，因而達成有效的學習。此教學設計的特色是以幼兒學習為中心，以互動學習為本，是優質的教學模式。

資訊科技應用軟件提供的教學功能

應用案例二的設計是根據幼兒的經驗及興趣進行語文活動，教師著他們在自己選取的相片加插文字註解，描述他們眼下的沙灘情景，促進幼兒使用書面語言表達的機會。我們透過是次活動觀察到幼兒非常喜愛運用中文手寫辨識板書寫。因為幼兒通過中文手寫辨識板輸入自己手寫的文字，然後從電腦螢幕閱讀輸入的文字檢驗對錯，幼兒感覺是如變魔術般的神奇，認為寫字是一個很有趣味的玩意，因而表現專注投入，而且具滿足感。我們選取的中文手寫辨識板，需要幼兒書寫正確的筆順，才能成功輸入文字。因此設置中文手寫辨識板及其應用軟件確能培養幼兒注意筆順的習慣，協助幼兒發展正確的筆順書寫中文字。手寫辨識板可發揮教學功能。

應用案例二顯示選取合適的應用軟件如手寫辨識系統，確能誘導幼兒學習的興趣，協助學習的持續發展。

資訊科技扮演授權賦能的角色

教師一直以來設計的語文活動都是集中在書寫表達方面，是次設計的製作數碼圖書活動，除了能將幼兒的已有知識組織及發展外，還可以提供每人自行朗讀的機會。幼兒非常具興趣地進行錄音活動，尤其是自己朗讀的表現，因而引起幼兒注意個人的咬字吐詞，彼此分享朗讀的樂趣。當中一些幼兒發聲的音節不準確，出現「懶音」的情況，教師便可藉此機會協助改善。雖然學校在日常教學會安排幼兒進行模擬(analogue)錄音活動，但是一般均不能即時在幼兒最投入的時候提供協助。原因往往是因為教師需來回翻查錄音帶記錄，費時失事；當進行小組錄音時，教師更要準確地找出需要重錄的片段，因此不利兒童從重錄的過程中學習。數碼錄音可分段進行，亦提供便捷而準確地找出重錄片段的功能。因為數碼錄音方便易用，錄音效果立竿見影，因而可激發幼兒要求改善的意欲，矯正的教學效果立見，語文教學方法也因此獲得拓展。教師在資訊科技支援的環境教學，資訊科技賦予教員方便錄製聲效的能力，並授予教師整合數碼音效於教學環境的權力，此乃資訊科技扮演授權賦能的一個例子。

應用案例三乃資訊科技扮演授權賦能的另一例子。應用案例三的結果証明源於學校生活的教材能引起幼兒反思不自覺行為的動力。由於教材是在自然學校生活環境下拍攝，教師可錄得幼兒不自覺的表現，使討論具實際成效。幼兒期的孩子正處於自我中心的發展階段，對於自我的行為並不自覺，發展群性的教育工作是教師的責任。工作包括培養幼兒自我系統發展，幫助幼兒認識自己及引導幼兒自我反思等。教師在日常教學工作啟導幼兒的群性發展，一般只能透過討論圖書故事人物行為的間接手段，或者直接在學校生活所見所聞運用口頭讚賞或輔導等方法讓幼兒學習。間接討論未必能觸動心靈，直接讚賞可收正增強(positive reinforcement)之效，但即時輔導負面行為不易奏效，先錄像後反思兼備針對性的特質，亦包容冷靜思考的可能性。資訊科技在這裡賦予教職員拍攝幼兒行為紀錄的能力，並授予教師直接編輯錄像的權力。教職員在數碼錄像環境下進行攝錄及編輯影像等操作，正享資訊科技授權賦能的功能。

促進學生主動學習及反思

從應用案例一製作數碼圖書的活動過程，我們觀察到幼兒所習得的內容包括認識電腦處理資訊的程序、參與組織圖書的內容及朗讀書面語的能力。製作數碼圖書的過程需要幼兒選取適當的題材繪畫有關春天的圖畫，然後從掃描器把圖畫數碼處理後輸入電腦存檔，利用演示軟件取出圖畫，再讓幼兒加插其撰寫有關春天的的描述語句及錄製旁白，完成製作數碼圖書的其中一頁。上述的製作過程使幼兒的學習既有趣味，又能認識電腦處理資迅的程序——輸入、處理、輸出。另一方面，由於數碼圖書各頁的資料已存於電腦演示，幼兒可參與組織圖書各頁的工作。描述春天的景象內容是沒有時間序列的限制的，因此幼兒可因應自己的思維組織圖書各頁的次序，亦可按活躍的思維變化隨意更調各頁次序，使圖書可以多於一個版本出現。數碼圖書在演示軟件內組織具易於改變次序的特性，可拓展幼兒創作的思維及意念，亦具發展幼兒主動學習的潛能。應用案例一製作數碼圖書的活動過程，我們觀察到只要教師創造一個良好的學習情景，幼兒便會主動參與有所得著，無論是朗讀還是組織表達，更重要的是培養其主動參與學習的態度。

應用案例三顯示資訊科技扮演授權賦能的角色，促使教師輕易選錄合適片段及安排播放秩序製作短片，營造合適的討論氣氛讓幼兒以客體身份觀賞短片，判斷行為的影響，然後作出討論及反思，讓幼兒在心平氣和的情況下認識自己。例如在製作數碼短片分享行為表現的過程，教師選錄剪輯了一位同學的行為，佈置幼兒反思不自覺行為的環境。這次群體活動是安排幼兒分組參觀超級市場，幼兒要共同商量選購製作沙律的食物。該同學平日的行為表現良好，處事具條理，與同學相處融洽，但在是次活動中卻顯示其自我中心的一面。該同學在選購水果活動中要求別人聽從他的意見，他很主觀地拒絕同學所選擇的水果，常用「你放下！」、「你不准拿取！」、「我選的！」、「你不要選！」等句子，在溝通過程中顯露出專橫的一面。教師在現場曾作出引導，但當時並沒有選錄此片段的意圖。事後教師反覆觀看片段及深入討論事件始末後決定選取片段作教材，一方面協助該同學認識自己的行為，另一方面協助其他同學注意言行對別人的影響。教師安排播放短片後，讓該同學說出原委，再引導其他同學說出感受，讓該同學自我檢視自己的行為態度，討論結果良好——同學明白尊重別人的重要。其實，幼兒在三年的學校生活中，教師會通過說故事、事例分享及說出感受等方法，提醒幼兒要尊重及關愛別人，現在透過活生生的例子，幼兒的感受當然更為深刻。片段播放及討論後，教師與幼兒更相約在當天後，假若發現任何同學出現相類似的行為，教師便會輕

拍其髒頭，以示提醒，讓幼兒自行改善。兩個月的觀察期滿，幼兒犯上此等毛病的情況明顯減少，教師藉著檢討的機會讓同學在自我鼓勵的掌聲中學會相處之道。

上述案例顯示，這種通過學習者、教師與科技的互動來協助學習者學習的教學模式，是發展以學習者為中心並以互動為本的教學範式的良好途徑。

提升學校教育素質

學校教育的素質能否提升與教師的信念和能力關係緊密，空有優良的設備而忽略恰當的應用徒然浪費。因此，學校教育的素質能否提升的關鍵在教師而不在教學媒體，教學媒體在教育的功能是幫助教師成為富有創意教學經營者(張玉燕，1998)。如果沒有教師的善加利用，媒體的功用終究無從發揮。教師需要先認識資訊科技的內容及了解其應用潛能，才具運用資訊科技的能力。教師應用資訊科技推動教育工作除了需具清晰的信念及獲得教學理論的支持外，個案研究結果顯示教師還需具備三項條件：(1)能夠克服應用資訊科技的困難，(2)善用資訊科技資源及(3)願意具創意地運用資訊科技施教。

克服應用資訊科技的困難

教師應用資訊科技推動教育工作需要克服三方面的困難，他們是：(1)教師學習資訊科技的心理障礙，(2)教學與科技的結合及(3)施行細節的舖排。幼兒教育應用資訊科技設計教學活動，誘導幼兒主動參與學習是一項嶄新的嘗試。雖然教師了解時代的趨勢，理解教學應用資訊科技只是遲早的問題，但是一般幼兒教師對資訊科技的認識不多，在學習資訊科技知識的起動過程，確實需要付出勇氣克服沉重的心理障礙，這無疑是推動資訊科技教育的一個重要關口。教師面對挑戰，反應因人而異，關鍵是學校的鼓勵和支援。學校若能提供時間和空間，讓教師在起動過程彼此支援，並通過製作資訊科技教材建立信心，肯定可藉此協助教師克服學習資訊科技的心理障礙，這亦是是次個案研究的寶貴經驗。一旦教師能夠戰勝心理上的障礙，就可以從學習的過程建立自信，克服認識資訊科技的困難。

要求教師將資訊科技知識靈活地結合教學工作，對教師而言無疑是一項鉅大的挑戰。由於教師剛開始接觸資訊科技亦欠缺運用的經驗，教師的應用構思往往囿於傳統的教學方法，所設計的活動一般均未能發揮資訊科技的特點。本個案研究的經驗顯示培訓和協作均能有效克服經驗不足的缺失。常見的資訊科技師資培訓課程，重點往往只是技術的培育，而忽略其與教學結合的探討。是次個案研究的培訓課程預定了充裕的時間探討資訊科技結合教學的要素，教師在設計活動時因而可更清晰地釐定其教學意義，讓教師專注幼兒的學習需要。單靠培訓並不足夠，教師、校長和研究員的協作，反覆討論、試驗、修訂亦是結合的成敗關鍵。雖然因此每項活動的設計均需花費大量時間完成，但是透過協作，教師們確實可因此而建立一套推動資訊科技幼兒教育的共識。活動的設計因而能從兒童的能力、興趣、易於操作、節省教學時間和引發反思等的角度思考，這些共識對提升學校教育素質都非常重要。

應用案例三的結果証明源自生活的教材能產生良好的教學效果，但是由於行為表現分享涉學生的情緒及私隱，教師在互動的學習環境必須注意幼兒的個人保障，務須提供一個關愛和可信任的環境才可進行分享，確保這些教材能獲得預期的效果如促進幼兒學習接納與尊重。教師亦需要在拍攝前知會幼兒和家長，確保教材不會作其他用途，保障幼兒的私隱。應用案例三引申出教師必須注意實踐資訊科技幼兒教育過程所引起的細節舖排。

善用資訊科技資源

如何在一個獲得資訊科技器材支援的教學環境，善用資源配合教學是一項具挑戰的工作。應用案例一教師要求幼兒運用紙筆科技繪畫圖畫，而非運用應用軟件如小畫家製作數碼圖畫，因為幼兒當時運用電腦繪畫的知識並不足夠，而學校擁有圖像掃瞄器，因此作出這樣的安排，資源獲得適當運用而教學目的亦達。錄製旁白的主要考慮是技術簡單可行而富教學效果，因而成為製作數碼圖書的一項主要元素。應用案例二運用中文手寫辨識板書寫的目的是利用幼兒的探索精神，運用手寫板軟件的人工智慧功能，誘導幼兒依從社會文化的規範，其作用與教師教導筆順可收相輔相成之效。應用案例三拍攝幼兒的學校生活片段，然後運用剪輯設計教材，製作過程的工作量繁重，選用此科技純因信念驅使——其教學功能較其他辦法佳，結果証明繁重的工作量是值得的。此個案研究結果顯示善用資訊科技資源，確能使教學設計向多元發展，豐富教師的教學思維，使教師可設計更個別化及人性化的教學策略。

汲取新知創意教學

教師在整個研究過程中都是從剛認識的的資訊科技知識應用於教學設計，期間很多技術問題都需要從嘗試中找出解決辦法。應用案例二教師設計的教學活動剛好可以作出說明。成人利用手寫板輸入中文方塊字是輕而

易舉的事情，但是對於幼兒來說，這可不是簡單的事情。本地幼兒習慣於細小的方格內書寫，幼兒不懂得如何把文字放大書寫，因此不能在空間過大的手寫板輸入文字，校方當然不希望重新購買手寫板。教師於是開始觀察幼兒應用手寫板的情況，並嘗試與幼兒日常寫字的情況互相比較，發覺幼兒在細小方框的環境較書寫文字比較得心應手。經過教師精心研究後，終於發現只要在手寫板上加上方框，規範幼兒在方框內書寫，便可解決問題。教師的表現展示創意。

應用案例二需要幼兒在數碼相片旁加插註解，但教師同樣了解幼兒並不懂得在文書處理軟件在任意位置輸入文字，若教師預設文字框可解決問題，但卻失去由幼兒自主選取人物表達感受的原意。教師並未因此而氣餒，相反各教師分別向身邊的朋友打聽尋找解決方案，並在不同電腦軟件應用環境輸入文字嘗試可能方案，後來教師發覺在試算表的儲存格環境放置數碼相片，可讓幼兒隨意在某一儲存格輸入文字。試驗結果顯示方案可行。這些試驗反映教師樂於汲取新知，願意富創意地思考落實教學策略。運用資訊科技設計教學活動，確能有效提高教師的探索精神，增強他們應用資訊科技的信心，達致教學相長的效果。

六・總結

幼兒教育應否應用資訊科技是一項具爭議的課題，因為幼兒教育所需要的基本元素是幼兒親身參與的活動、具體的操作及群體的生活。若資訊科技的教育應用集中於透過軟件學習知識，必然引起爭論質疑其適切性。本個案研究的主要目的是希望透過實踐掌握資訊科技在幼兒教育的功能。研究結果顯示幼兒教育應用資訊科技，具推動學習者主動學習的空間及創造教師探索新教學策略的環境。促進學生主動學習是現時教育改革的首要任務，若我們的教師能經常探索新教學策略，讓幼兒從小習慣主動學習，一代莘莘學子便受惠無窮。

案例研究顯示通過學習者、教師與科技的互動來協助學習者學習的教學模式，是發展以學習者為中心並以互動為本的教學範式的良好途徑。資訊科技能夠推動主動學習是因為其扮演授權賦能的角色，提供豐富的教學功能及創造屬實的學習機會。資訊科技能夠創造教師探索新教學策略，是因為資訊科技器材具可塑性，應用變化多端，可供教師探索。只要教師能克服學習資訊科技的困難、善用資訊科技資源及願意具創意地運用資訊科技施教，教師便可成為富有創意的教學經營者。

幼兒在互動的資訊科技學習環境，無論是搜集資料還是整合表達的過程都有充分的交流機會，幼兒在互相討論或解決問題的過程彼此協助對方，因而提供對等的支持和支援，使幼兒有更主動學習的空間，教師亦因而可騰出更多時間照顧幼兒的個別學習情況。善用資訊科技確能增強幼兒教育的教學效能，因為教學媒體所傳播的訊息可更立體地呈現，幼兒能同時透過不同媒體接收資訊及表達感受，配合教師的互動教學設計。採用這種教學方法，可更容易達致以學生學習為中心的教學範式，因而促進施教及學習的過程更個別化及人性化。這種發展不但符合幼兒的身心發展，更可促進幼兒的學習成效。

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(Received: 15.6.01, accepted 21.7.01, revised 25.8.01)

Are Parents Prepared to be Involved in Children's Education?

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Promoting home-school relations is one of the aims of education reforms in Hong Kong. This paper contains research data collected through qualitative methods aiming at capturing the thoughts and perceptions of twelve parents in three primary schools in Hong Kong so as to explore whether they are psychologically prepared for being involved in their children's education. Findings indicate that parents demonstrated low degree of cognitive and affective readiness for participating in school. To promote parent-school collaboration, it is important to consider the influence of Chinese culture on parent involvement. The paper also serves to provide scholars with academic insights for further investigation and policy makers with practical knowledge in developing appropriate strategies to promote home-school relations.

家長有準備參與學校教育嗎？

促進家庭與學校的關係是香港教育改革的其中一項目的，鼓勵家長參與學校教育更可提升家校合作。本文引用定質研究方法去探討十二位家長是否有心理準備去參與他們子女的教育；研究結果顯示家長在認知和情感上有不足的準備。在建立策略去促進家校關係的同時，我們須考慮中國文化對家長參與的影響。

Introduction

The vision of school improvement compels us to create a new conception of the appropriate relationship between parent and school. In fact, the promotion of home-school relations has recently become the focus of educational reform in Hong Kong. The importance of strong home-school links can help contribute to the enhancement of school effectiveness (Epstein, 1990; Munn, 1993; Bastiani, 1993). To optimize children's learning outcome, home-school relationship must be improved. The vitality and significance of parent involvement in school have well been recognized in the Western societies where parents' participation in school or direct control and intervention in decision making process are always treated as a civic right (Cheng, 1994; Tai, 1996). The idea of parent-school collaboration contributing to school effectiveness is gradually gaining attention in Asian region especially in Hong Kong where parent involvement in school is not encouraged and contact with parents initiated by schools is very often for remedial purposes (Cheung et al, 1996). Shen et al (1994) found that home-school communication in Hong Kong was often one way and parent-teacher relationship was not sufficient and effective enough for facilitating all rounded development of children.

To promote and strengthen home-school relations, the Education Department has established the Home-School Cooperation Committee since 1993 which has then encouraged schools to set up Parent-Teacher Associations (PTAs) so as to increase contact between parents and teachers. To reiterate the importance of parent involvement, Education

Commission Report (ECR) No. 7 (1997) urges schools to involve parents and teachers in school management. The Advisory Committee on School-based Management (2000) has just published a consultation document to ask the public for their opinion on the number of parent representatives to be included in the school council. However, there is quite a number of disputes. Some school organizations suggest that the number of parent representatives be as small as possible so as to avoid conflicts in school policies with the school personnel. On the other hand, some parent organizations would like to increase the number of parents in the school council.

Aim of Study

Parents in the West are aware of their rights and responsibilities in getting involved in the school due to the fact that their education standard is, in general, higher and they are cultivated with moral beliefs of fairness, partnership and democracy. However, parent-school collaboration is passive in traditional Asian societies and the practices of implementing parent involvement in school education especially in the context of Hong Kong are often fragmentary. Whether home-school relations can be smoothly promoted in the Hong Kong society dominated mainly with Chinese culture is a question. This study has provided insights into whether parents are psychologically prepared to work together with school personnel at different levels of school education through adopting qualitative method to capture their thoughts and perceptions on their involvement in school. Its purpose is not to generalize but to illuminate the phenomenon of parent involvement, helping to fill in the gap of previous quantitative studies (e.g. Chan et al, 1993; Shen et al, 1994) on the same issue.

Methodology

Method and Subject:

The study is adopting the case study method of inquiry as the research methodological paradigm. Case study is a detailed, in-depth exploration of a bounded system or a case (multiple cases) in a period of time through collecting data with multiple sources of information (Creswell, 1998). It was employed here to pursue particularity of the issue of parent involvement. The subjects for this study were three primary schools where the investigator spent half a year to conduct semi-structured interviews with twelve parents. Participant observations simultaneously took place in parents' events such as parent day, executive meetings of PTA and parent-school consultative meetings. Primary schools were selected in preference to secondary schools because research has found that there is less parent-teacher interaction in secondary schools (e.g. Dornbusch & Glasgow, 1996; Shen et al, 1994). These schools were chosen in accordance with two principles. First, the schools provided greater potential for parent involvement. Second, students in the schools came from different social positions. Purposive sampling method was employed (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Two parents from middle-class backgrounds and two from working-class families were selected for interview in each school to provide maximum variation among their views (Hutchinson, 1988).

Data analysis in qualitative study takes place simultaneously with data collection (Erlandson et al, 1993). In this study, an analysis with codes and categories occurred immediately after the first interview had been transcribed. This analysis was then used to inform the second interview and so on. This process of constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) means that the formal analysis is nearly completed by the end of data collection.

Theoretical framework:

To analyze parent-school collaboration, it is commonly to look into the degree of parent involvement in school. Cheng (1991), Chan et al (1993), Ramsay et al (1992), Hornby (1995), Morgan et al (1992), and Esptein (1992, 1996) have suggested different models of parent involvement in school for studying home-school collaboration. Different educators have developed different parent involvement models for people to study home-school links. One of the similar characteristics among these models is that parental participation in school often takes place at the lowest level of communication and, at the right moment, moves up to the highest level of decision making. In this study, the six level Model of Home-School Cooperation (MHSC) developed by

Ng (1999) was adopted and is outlined in Figure 1 as the framework for exploring the perceptions of parents on parent involvement at different levels in school.

According to the MHSC, parents can be involved outside and inside school. As for the involvement outside school, communication between home and school through circulars and telephone contact is regarded as a kind of involvement and it will be better if teachers and parents both play an active role in initiating contact. It comes to be logical to point out that in order to have effective and fruitful implementation of parent involvement in school education, it is better to start first at the lower level of involvement, then move up the hierarchy gradually when parents are ready. At a higher level, parents' assisting their children in doing homework and contributing to make joint effort with their children in accomplishing school projects are also treated as participation in school activities. Sometimes, parents are invited to go to school for some seminars and talks concerning knowledge and skills beneficial to the children's personal and social growth, allocation of school places, home-school cooperation, etc. On the other hand, parents can have the rights to be involved in matters inside school from being volunteers in helping organize and conduct school activities to monitoring and even playing a governing role in the school management committee. At these levels, parents actually take a partnership role with school personnel.

Figure 1: A Six-Level Model of Home-School Cooperation (MHSC) (Ng, 1999)

Domain	Level	Nature of Participation	Illustrations of Activities Concerned	Parents' Rights
Involvement Inside School	6	Participating in decision making	- Member of the school management committee and board of school - Taking part in teacher appraisal, recruitment and promotion - Promoting educational innovation	Governing ↑ Monitoring
	5	Helping decision making	- Being consulted in formulating school polices such as curriculum development - Representing in different committees in school - Conveying influencing opinion from PTA to school management - Providing opinion on student admission policy	
	4	Assisting in school operation	- Helping organize and conduct extra-curricular activities - Taking part in classroom teaching - Being voluntary in acting as library assistant	
Involvement Outside School	3	Taking part in parent programme and organization	- Organizing and joining PTA - Raising fund for school - Participating in school events - Taking part in seminars and talk	Showing accountability ↑
	2	Helping actual learning of individual children	- Supervising children's learning at home - Collaborating with children in doing school projects - Looking after children's health development	
	1	Communication (one to two way)	- Contacting school on telephone - Participating in parent-teacher conference - Receiving circulars from school and giving feedback through children's handbook	Being informed

To explore whether parents are psychologically prepared for collaboration, the framework outlined in Figure 2 is developed for guiding the investigator to conduct semi-structured interviews with parents. It is assumed that if they are better prepared cognitively and affectively, the school will have a better opportunity to develop positive and productive parent-school relationships (Cheung et al, 1996). On the vertical side, there are six levels of parent involvement in school education along which opinions of parents on parent involvement were collected. On the horizontal side, questions in the interviews were guided and concentrated under these two domains: cognitive readiness and affective readiness. If parents have developed positive values and beliefs in cognitive readiness but holds an negative attitude (unwillingness) in affective domain or vice versa, parent-school collaboration is thought to be psychologically unprepared. During the interviews, parents were asked questions along the hierarchy from level one - communication to level six - participating in decision making. At level one, for example, in the domain of cognitive readiness for parent-school collaboration, they were asked whether they understood the importance of keeping close contact with teachers through different communication means and whether they realized that it was their responsibilities to show up in teacher-parent conferences. In the domain of affective readiness for parent-school collaboration, parents were asked whether they were willing to maintain close contact with teachers for the own good of the children.

Figure 2: Framework for the study

Level of parent involvement	Cognitive readiness (Illustrations)	Affevtive readiness (Illustrations)
6. Participating in decision making	• Parents believe that they have the competence to participate in formulating school polices. • Parents understand clearly that their personal readiness is needed for participating in making school policies.	• Parents are willing to participate in formulating school policies. • Parents are willing to express their opinions on developing school policies in meetings of the school council.
5. Helping decision making	• Parents realize that it is their responsibility to make suggestions to the school. • Parents understand that they have the competence to provide constructive recommendations on school polices. • Parents realize clearly their roles as school consultants.	• Parents are willing to speak up in the parent-school consultative meetings. • Parents are willing to act as school consultants and to work cooperatively with school personnel.
4. Assisting in school operation	• Parents believe that they have the competence to assist in school's daily operation. • Parents realize the vitality of their contribution of individual resources to educating children.	• Parents are willing to learn and work with teachers in school. • Parents are willing to express their views and provide assistance when needs arise.
3. Taking part in parent programmes and organization	• Parents realize the meaning and importance of taking part in PTA and other parent events organized by teachers. • Parents know how to organize and participate in PTA and other parent events.	• Parents are willing to cooperate and work will other parents in the PTA. • Parents are willing to contribute personal resources such as time and expertise and support to the school.
2. Helping actual learning of individual children	• Parents understand the importance and meaning of educating their children. • Parents understand the importance and significance of collaborating with teachers for the education of their children.	• Parents are willing to spend time in assisting their children's learning at home. • Parents are willing to work collaboratively with teachers.
1.Communication	• Parents understand the importance of keeping close contact with teachers through different communicative means. • Parents realize that it is their responsibilities to show up in teacher-parent conferences.	• Parents are willing to maintain close contact with teachers for the own good of their children. • Parents are willing to show up and exchange information about their children in parent-teacher conferences.

Results: Parents' perception on parent-school collaboration

High to average degree of cognitive readiness at levels one to three of the MHSC

All parents except one expressed strong desire for contact with teachers at levels one and two. They realized that without effective communication with teachers, they knew less or nothing about the performance of their children at school. They were eager to develop close relationships with the class teacher. One parent explained:

> *My child has spent the whole day at school. I want to listen to the class teacher to know how my child behaves. Though the parent-teacher conference is held on Saturday morning, I would rather come to attend the meeting than go to work. It's important if the teacher can tell me some techniques of supervising my child at home. They are professionals. I ought to listen to them.*

Parents cognitively demonstrated great intention of sharing responsibilities with teachers at levels one and two. They understood that only through cooperation with teachers did they know more about their children's performance at home. As going up to level three, about six parents agreed that parents should help organize the PTA and be members of it. They understood the importance of participating in parent events so that home-school relations could develop. The other six parents indicated here the intention of separate responsibilities. They had no intention to participate in parent events unless it was necessary. It was found that they were busy and did not understand the significant meaning of their involvement in school. One of the parents commented as follows:

> *I am busy. I think the school should look after my child for me. It's their duty to teach my child. I need to go to work and I have no time to get involved in school. I know nothing about supervision of children. I depend all on the school.*

Low degree of cognitive readiness at level four and above

Nine of the parents expressed that they had no interest in being involved inside school. They did not understand why they could participate in school's daily operation and what role they could play when being appointed or elected managers of the school. In fact, they indicated that they did not have any competence to be working with teachers in deciding policies of the school. They did not realize that parents' participation in decision making was part of the essence of parent-school collaboration. One parent felt surprised:

> *What! Inviting me to be one of the school managers. What is it about? I don't think I have competence to be working there. I am a housewife. I could help the school to be assistant librarian but I don't know I am allowed to be the manager. Even if it is so, I will not agree to be. I would rather be informed of the school policies than participate in making decision.*

High degree of affective readiness at levels one and two of the MHSC

Like the attitudes shown in cognitive domain, most parents also indicated their great intention of willingness to maintain close contact with class teachers and to be present in parent-teacher conferences so as to exchange information concerning their children's performance with the teachers. They were also willing to spend time on assisting their children. In such a case, they were voluntary to work collaboratively with the teachers so that they could know better about their children's personal and academic development at school. A housewife demonstrated her eagerness to always talk with the class teacher. In her words:

> *Surely I would like to be always contacted by the class teacher. If not, I cannot know what happens to my child at school. Every day, I spend more than three hours readin,, with my child. He behaves well at home but I don't know what he behaves at school. Therefore, it will be better to have more parent-teacher conferences in a year. I don't mind if the teacher calls me on the phone at all time.*

Low degree of affective readiness at level three and above

However, when asked about their willingness to participate in organizing the PTA and to assist school's daily operation, most of the parents pointed out that they could not spare any time to do so and they lacked confidence and competence to be working collaboratively with teachers in school, not to mention being involved in decision making. In fact, they had demonstrated the same attitudes as in cognitive domain; thus it was not surprising that they had the same perceptions on the affective intention of involvement at upper levels of the hierarchy of the MHSC. One of the parents exclaimed:

> *No, it's not my duty to be going to school as managers or to get involved in school's daily operation. I am busy enough at daytime. If I am asked to assist in the classroom, I don't know how to manage my time. In addition, what about the teachers? Do they think that we interfere with their daily teaching affairs? Are they willing to work with us? This should be taken into consideration. I am not willing to be involved so as to avoid conflicts with teachers. If I do something wrongly, I am afraid the teacher will retaliate against my child.*

In summary, it could be interpreted that the sample of parents in this study were not psychologically prepared for parent-school cooperation. As parents are only ready to be involved in communicating with school and they are willing to render support to supervise their children at home, the involvement focussing on lower level of the hierarchy makes less contribution to the development of home-school collaboration. Parents are not accustomed to intervening school personnel since they have not been given such rights before. They have never thought of going into the classroom and even managing the schools together with teaching professionals. Therefore, they are not psychologically prepared to activate their rights as given at levels two and above. An overview of the perceptions of parents on cognitive and affective readiness for collaboration is showed in Figure 3.

Figure 3: Degree of psychological preparation for parent-school collaboration demonstrated by parents

Level of parent involvement	Degree of cognitive readiness	Degree of affective readiness
6. Participating in decision making	Low	Low
5. Helping decision making	Low	Low
4. Assisting in school operation	Low	Low
3. Taking part in parent programme and organization	Average	Low
2. Helping actual learning of individual children	High	High
1. Communication	High	High

Discussion

As shown above, when attitudes of parents towards cognitive readiness were not in line with those towards affective readiness and the degree of readiness of participation inside school was low, implementation of parent involvement in school might not be successful. According to Cheung et al (1996), only deep level cognitive and affective changes can develop an enduring and effective parent-school collaboration.

Parents: Consideration of cultural dimension

Parents had less intention to be involved inside school's daily operation though they were asked to do so. Salili (1996) opines that the Chinese cultural values mediate the achievement orientation of Chinese students and the extent of involvement in school of the Chinese parents. In his research, Cheng (1994) highlights that Chinese parents take

schools holistically and are not interested in the detailed operation of school and that parents perceive the fundamental aim of their children's education is for upward mobility and further study. To achieve this aim, parents respect teachers deeply and avoid creating conflicts with teachers. In our samples, parents understood the importance of developing good communication with the class teachers and they were willing to listen to teachers so that what they had done at home could comply with what the teachers requested. It might help their children gain some impression from the teachers which carried positive influence on the scores of the tests and achieve good academic performance in school (Ng, 1996). This is an essential determinant for successful survival in the competitive education context of Hong Kong dominated by Chinese culture (Salili, 1996; Morris, 1983).

Other than involvement at levels one and two, most parents were hesitant to participate in any activities in school. The research conducted by Shen, et al (1994) found that parents would prefer being informed to being granted to have a say in decision making. Indeed, what interests Chinese parents most is the effort they have made to nurture their children and to urge them to study hard. LeVine & White (1986) outline that in East Asian countries with a Confucian tradition, there is a high extent of parent involvement in supervising and monitoring children's learning process and teachers have a high and respected status. Thus, it is not difficult to imagine that parents in Hong Kong have to contribute their best and are pleased to get involved in their children's study, especially in this competitive society of which her education system is of examination orientation. However, their involvement is not inside school. Their arena is at home (Cheng, 1994).

Chinese culture is often characterized with collectivism whereas individualism is prevailing in the western society (Bond, 1986; Salili, 1996). Chinese culture is focused on the obedience and loyalty towards the group that would then protect their members in exchange for loyalty. In return, individual members will behave in conformity to the norms or request of the group (Yang, 1986; Hwang, 1983). Bond points out that Chinese people believe that to invite any type of dispute is an invitation to chaos. Therefore, they will avoid any direct confrontation. Collectivistic culture penetrates in all walks of Chinese lives and its influence could also been envisaged in the analysis of parent-school relations in Hong Kong. In the case of school, parents perceive schools as a holistic entity and they are components of the whole (Liu, 1988). Chinese parents incline to believe that improvement of school results from internal adjustment of the school rather than external intervention (Cheng, 1996). They try not to interfere with school because they place school as a community above individual. They do not see their participation in school as legitimate. Unlike their counterparts in the West, Chinese parents, hence, get hold of the ideology of separate responsibility with schools. Children learn at school whereas parents supervise them at home.

Conclusion

After taking into consideration of the Chinese culture on parent involvement, it is not surprised to find that parents demonstrated low degree of affective readiness for parent-school collaboration. It seems that it is a common practice that implementing almost all educational innovations will face a lot of resistance and needs appropriate strategies to minimize this resistance. Support and education are two essential prerequisites provided to parents before implementation of parent involvement in school.

Due to the Chinese tradition, the purposes of parents' self-restricted behaviors of not intruding into school are all for the decent and harmonious development of the school. They do not understand it is their rights and responsibilities nowadays to be partners with school personnel in the educational process of their children. Therefore, it is important to provide parents with parent education by the Education Department of Hong Kong. At school, school personnel should also demonstrate a welcoming attitude for parent involvement. Before implementing parent involvement in school, it is important that concrete supports should be provided to teachers and parents. It includes resource support and emotional support. As for the parents, for instance, the school should organize a lot of parent events such as seminars on parent involvement in school, conduct survey of parents' opinion on setting up PTA and making every effort to publicize the importance of parent-school collaboration. This kind of emotional support can enhance parents' feeling of cognitive and affective readiness for the implementation of parent involvement. Perhaps providing venues for parent meetings

and organizations at school will facilitate psychological preparation.

This study does not try to generalize the conceptions of parents on parent-school collaboration in Hong Kong but particularly look into the psychological state of twelve parents about parent involvement in their schools. It serves to fill in the gap of the previous quantitative study. Illumination on the phenomenon of parent-school collaboration in these schools can help us understand what has actually happened in the scenes and what strategies should be adopted for its successful implementation. Nowadays, there is the evident desire to increase the accountability of schools to parents. However, education reformer should take into consideration parents' psychological readiness for the innovation and the influence of cultural dimension on parent involvement.

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(Received 6.10.01, accepted 1.11.01, revised 13.11.01)

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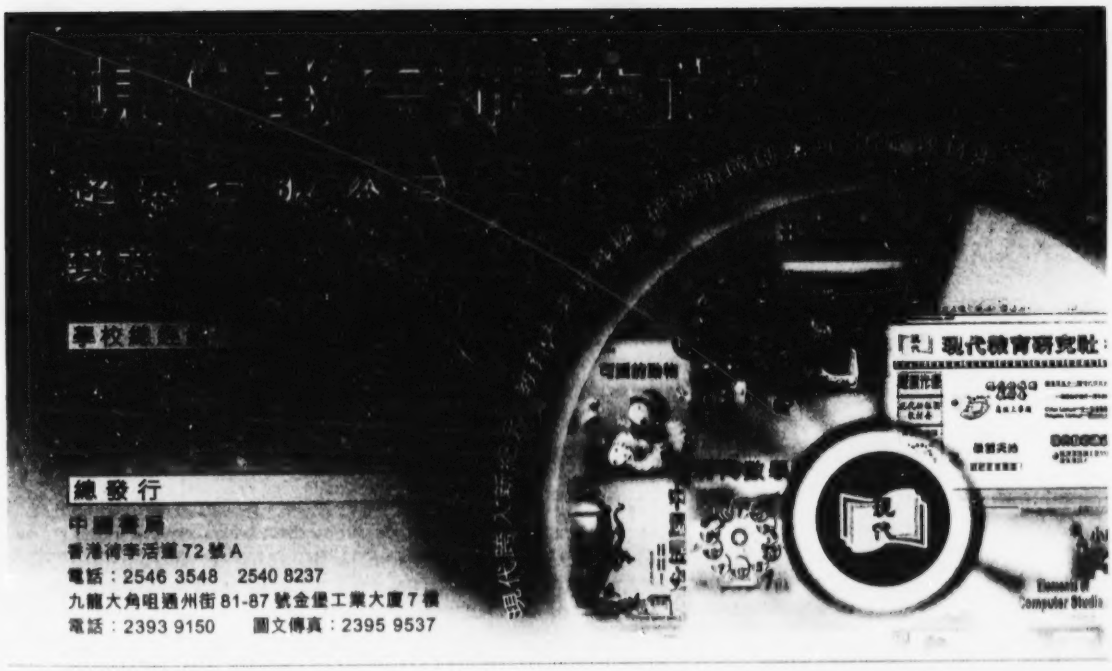

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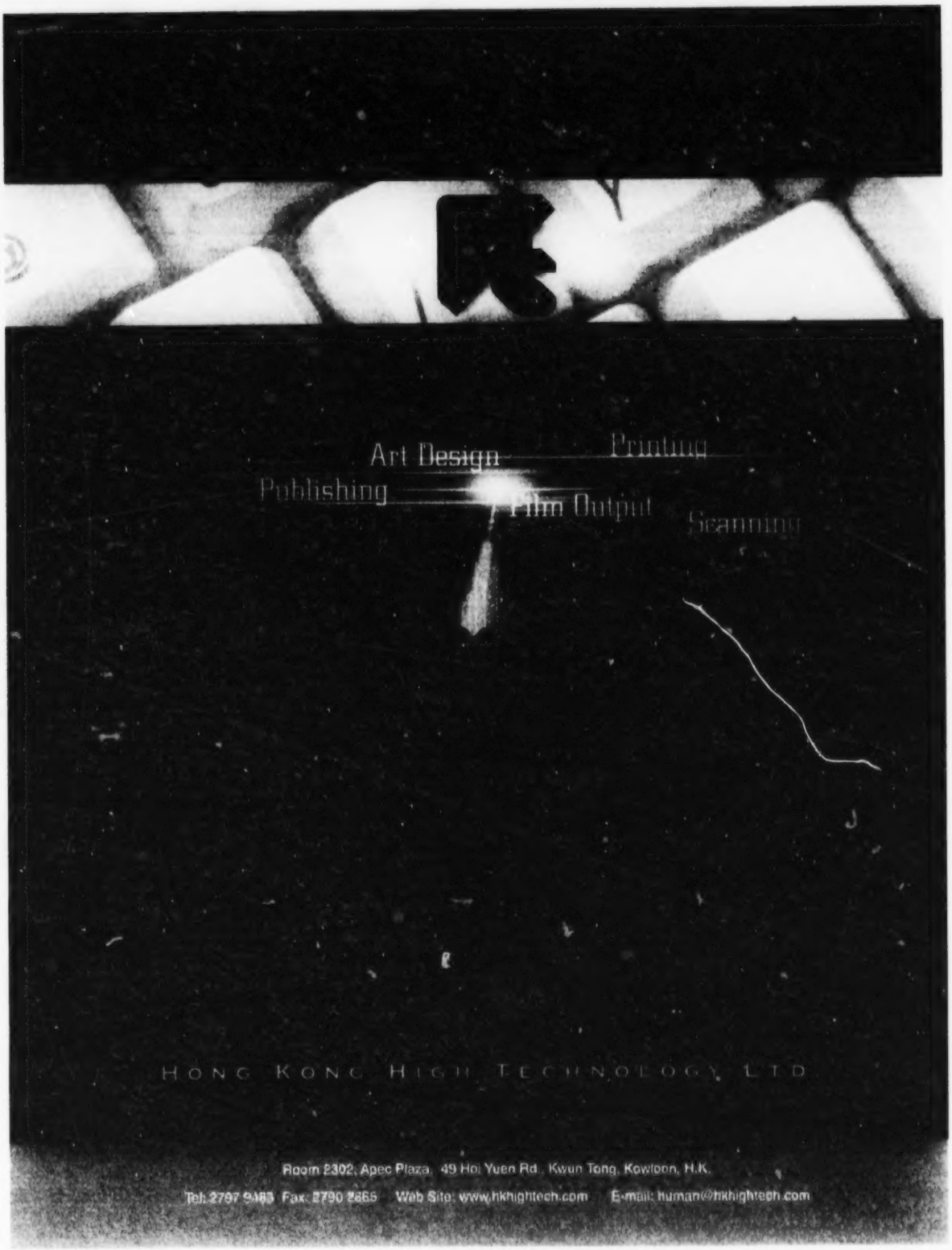
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